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Inductive Series.

AN

INDUCTIVE GRAMMAR

OF

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE;

FOR THE USE OF

COMMON AND GRADED SCHOOLS.

BY

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PREFACE.

SEVERAL circumstances have lately conspired to give to English Grammar a form more consistent and philosophical than it has hitherto possessed. Philology has risen to the rank of a science—one of the most fascinating of all the sciences; and Grammar, in common with the correlated branches of language-study, has rapidly approximated a more rational standard. This treatise has been undertaken and brought to completion in the hope of presenting to the public the best results of recent inquiry as shown in the formal Grammar of our mother tongue.

I have ventured to call the present work AN INDUCTIVE GRAMMAR OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. I use the word "Inductive" in the title because it has been my purpose, as far as practicable, to reach the *principles* of the science by an examination of *the language itself*. I do not claim that to the subject-matter of Grammar, considered as a science, the inductive method is *universally* applicable. There are parts—many parts—in which Deduction is more successfully employed. In such parts it would be worse than folly to use the poorer method for the sake of the theory. Let the general purpose of fixing the science on the basis of fact, be kept in view, and the method be made sufficiently flexible to secure that result.

A word as to the relative value of *Usage* and *Law* in determining the principles of Grammar: Usage may be ever so contradictory and absurd; but the true law of language, when once that law is discovered, is always found to be uniform and consistent with itself. Too much deference to the vices and inconsistencies of usage has been the crying sin of many grammarians and lexicographers.

Under the general plan presented above, it has been the author's aim to attend to several important particulars:

I. *To reduce the present work to as small a compass as is consistent with a comprehensive exposition of the principles of the science.* It has not been the aim to make the work a mere synopsis or epitome of grammatical principles; still, the author recognizes the fact that brevity is the best part of art. To secure the same it has been found necessary to avoid redundancies and repetitions, and to exclude extraneous matter.

II. *To simplify every part of the treatise as much as possible.* I am convinced that the science of Grammar has been needlessly perplexed with hair-splittings of etymology and variations of syntax quite foreign to the simple and severe genius of the English tongue. In this respect I have made a few radical departures from the customary methods.

III. *To clear the work, as far as practicable, of any admixture of the other sciences.* Grammar is grammar. Rhetoric has its own sphere; so, also, has logic. All attempts to consider the three together will end in confusion. No two sciences can be successfully taught from one text-book. In the present work the principles of rhetoric and logic will not be discussed, except in so far as those principles lie distinctly within the sphere of Grammar.

Having said thus much, by way of preface, as to the general scope of the work here presented to the public, I leave the merits of the book to the discrimination of those to whom it is more particularly addressed. I sincerely trust that THE TEACHERS of our country may find the work to be, in some measure at least, the realization of the author's hope and purpose.

J. C. R.

INDIANA ASBURY UNIVERSITY,
September 1st, 1880.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

CHAPTER I.

FIRST PRINCIPLES.

1. When we perceive any thing we form a **Mental Picture** of that thing.

2. The mental picture which we form of any thing is called an **Idea**.

3. When an idea is expressed by means of a symbol we call the symbol a **Word**.

1. Sometimes an idea is expressed by an utterance of the voice. In that case we have a *spoken* word.

2. Sometimes an idea is represented by written or printed characters. In that case we have a *written* or *printed* word.

3. The written or printed word represents, first, *the spoken word*; and, secondly, *the idea* expressed by that word.

4. The process of combining ideas in the mind is called **Thinking**.

5. The union of two ideas in the mind is called a **Thought**.

6. A thought expressed in words is called a **Sentence**.

7. An assemblage of sentences in proper relation with each other constitutes **Language**.

We thus come to the following

DEFINITIONS.

1. An **idea** is *a mental picture of any thing.*
2. A **word** is *the sign of an idea.*
3. A **thought** is *the union of two ideas in the mind.*
4. A **sentence** is *a thought expressed in words.*
5. **Language** is *a combination of sentences in proper relation with each other.*

8. The following extracts are examples of written language:

1. When I look upon the tombs of the great, every emotion of envy dies in me. When I read the epitaphs of the beautiful, every inordinate desire goes out. When I meet with the grief of parents upon a tombstone, my heart melts with compassion. When I see the tomb of the parents themselves, I consider the vanity of grieving for those whom we must quickly follow. When I see kings lying by those who deposed them; when I consider rival wits placed side by side, or the holy men that divided the world with their contests and disputes, I reflect with sorrow and astonishment on the little competitions, factions, and debates of mankind.

— *Addison.*

2. To him who, in the love of Nature, holds
Communion with her visible forms, she speaks
A various language: for his gayer hours
She has a voice of gladness, and a smile
And eloquence of beauty; and she glides
Into his darker musings with a mild
And gentle sympathy, that steals away
Their sharpness, ere he is aware.— *Bryant.*

9. If we study the language presented in these extracts, we shall find our inquiry to be twofold:—

1. An examination into *the nature of the words*; and,
2. An inquiry into *the relations which the words sustain to each other in the sentences.*

10. That branch of study which investigates *the nature of the words* in a language is called **Etymology**.

The word *etymology* is derived from the Greek words, *etymon*, meaning *true sense*; and *logos*, meaning *doctrine*.

11. That branch of study which investigates *the relation of words to each other in sentences* is called **Syntax**.

The word *syntax* is derived from the Greek words, *syn*, meaning *together*; and *taxis*, meaning *arrangement*.

12. That science which embraces the etymology and syntax of a language is called **Grammar**.

13. The grammar of the language spoken by the people of the English race is called **English Grammar**.

Thus we come to the following

DEFINITIONS.

1. **Etymology** is the science which treats of *the true nature* of words.

2. **Syntax** is the science which treats of *the relations* of words in sentences.

3. **Grammar** is the science which includes *the etymology and syntax of a language*.

4. **English Grammar** is the grammar of the language spoken by the people of the English race.

As an Art.—Considered in its practical application, English Grammar is the art of speaking and writing the English language according to its Law and Usage.

14. By examining the specimens of written language given on the preceding page, we shall find that they differ from each other *in form*:

1. That form of language in which the first extract is written is called **Prose**.

2. That form of language in which the second extract is written is called **Verse**.

3. Grammar is *the same* in both prose and verse; but,

4. Verse has *certain peculiarities* and *principles of its own*.

5. That branch of study which investigates the peculiarities and principles of verse is called **Prosody**.

15. DEFINITION.—**Prosody** is the science which treats of *the principles and construction of verse*.*

GENERAL ANALYSIS.

In the present work, therefore, English Grammar will be considered under **three heads**:

I. ETYMOLOGY—

Which treats of *the true nature of the words of the English language*.

II. SYNTAX—

Which treats of *the relations that words sustain to each other in sentences in the English language*.

III. PROSODY—

Which treats of *the principles and construction of verse in the English language*.

* Prosody may be regarded as belonging either to Grammar or to Rhetoric. So far as versification is concerned, the subject is grammatical; so far as poetry proper is concerned, it is rhetorical. In the present treatise Prosody will be considered as the third general division of Grammar.

PART I.

ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER II.

SECTION I.—GENERAL ANALYSIS.

1. **ETYMOLOGY** is that division of Grammar which treats of words considered in their essential nature.

Extract.—There, in the faint light, were the English soldiers on a hill; a wood behind them; in their midst the royal banner, representing a fighting warrior woven in gold thread, adorned with precious stones. Beneath the banner, as it rustled in the wind, stood King Harold on foot, with two of his remaining brothers by his side. Around them, still and silent as the dead, clustered the whole English army—every soldier covered by his shield, and bearing in his hand the dreaded English battle-axe.—*Dickens.*

2. If we study *the nature of the words* composing this extract, we shall find that our inquiry will embrace the following particulars:

1. The *spelling* of the words;
2. The *division* of the words *into parts*;
3. The *pronunciation* of the words;
4. The *sources* from which the words *are derived*;
5. The *classification* of the words *according to their offices*;
6. The *modifications* of the words *in form*;
7. The *properties* or *qualities* of the words.

3. That part of Etymology which treats of *the correct spelling* of words is called **Orthography**.

4. That branch of the subject which considers *the division* of words *into parts* is called **Syllabication**.

5. That branch which treats of *the proper pronunciation* of words is called **Orthoëpy**.

6. That division which explains *the sources* from which words *are derived* is called **Derivation**.

7. That part of Etymology which treats of *the arrangement* of words *into groups according to the offices which they perform*, is called **Classification**.

8. That branch of the subject which considers *the changes in the forms of words* is called **Inflection**.

9. That division which treats of *the qualities belonging to words in virtue of their sense and form*, is called **Grammatical Property**.

Under the above heads the subject of Etymology will be considered, beginning with Orthography.

SECTION II.—ORTHOGRAPHY.

10. DEFINITION.—**Orthography** is that branch of Etymology which treats of *the correct spelling* of words.

I. Letters.—Classification.

11. A letter is an arbitrary character representing an elementary sound of the human voice.

12. The letters of a language, taken together in their order, constitute its **Alphabet**.

1. The letters of the English alphabet are twenty-six in number. These are: a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z. When written or printed in this form they are called **Roman** letters.

2. Sometimes the letters are written or printed with a peculiar inclination to the right—thus: *a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z*. Letters of this form are called **Italics**.

3. Sometimes a larger and more conspicuous form of the letters is employed—thus: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z. In this form the letters are called **Capitals**.

4. In *writing*, the following forms of letters are employed:

A a, B b, C c, D d, E e, F f, G g, H h, I i, J j, K k, L l, M m, N n, O o, P p, Q q, R r, S s, T t, U u, V v, W w, X x, Y y, Z z. Letters of this form are called **Script**.

13. If we make an examination of the letters *with respect to their sounds*, we shall find that some of them represent *full-toned sounds*, and may be produced *independently of other sounds*. Letters of this sort are called **Vowels**.

1. The vowels are **a, e, i, o, u, w, y**.

2. Since, in producing the sounds represented by these letters, the vocal organs *do not interfere with the passage of the voice*, they are called **Unarticulated Sounds**.

3. Sometimes two vowels are *united in one syllable*, as in the words *noise*, *bound*. Such combinations of sounds are called **Diphthongs**.

4. Sometimes three vowels unite in one syllable, as in the words *aye*, *beau*, *view*, etc. Such combinations are called **Triphthongs**.

14. The remaining letters of the alphabet represent *feeble-toned* or *no-toned sounds*, or sounds *dependent on other sounds*. To this second class of letters we give the name of **Consonants**.

1. The consonants are **b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, w, x, y, z**.

2. Since, in producing the sounds represented by these letters, the organs of speech *interrupt the passage of the sound*, they are called **Articulated Sounds**.

3. Two of the letters, *w* and *y*, are included in both lists; that is, they are sometimes vowels and sometimes consonants. At the beginning of words or syllables *y* is a consonant; as in *yet*, *yellow*. In all other positions it is a vowel; as in *fly*, *deny*. At the beginning of words or syllables *w*, also, is a consonant; as in *wet*, *willow*. In other positions it is a vowel; as in *view*, *below*.

Note.—The letter *w* can be a vowel only when combined with some other vowel; as in *snow*, *curfew*.

15. The consonants are subdivided, according to their qualities, into several groups, or classes:

1. The first class embraces those letters the sounds of which are *completely interrupted* by the contact of the vocal organs in producing them. Letters of this class are called **Mutes**. They are *b, c hard* (as in *came*), *d, g hard* (as in *game*), *k, p, q, t*.

2. The second group embraces those letters the sounds of which are *partly interrupted*. They are *c soft* (as in *city*), *f*, *g soft* (as in *gem*), *v*, *w*, *y*. These are called **Semi-vowels**.

3. The third class embraces those letters which, from *the flowing nature of their sounds*, are called **Liquids**. They are *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*.

4. The fourth class consists of the two letters *s* and *z*, which, from their *hissing sounds*, are called **Sibilants**.

5. The fifth division consists of the single letter *h*, which is called a **Breathing**, being produced by *a simple impulse of the breath*. Thus, *and + h* becomes *hand*.

6. The sixth class contains the single letter *x*, which is a **Mute-Sibilant**, being equivalent at the beginning of words to *z*, and in other positions having the force of the two consonants *cs = ks*, or *gs*, the *g* being *hard*.

II. Spelling.—Principles.

16. The process of combining the letters of the alphabet so as to form words is called **Spelling**.

The science of spelling is taught in spelling-books and dictionaries; but a few of the plainer principles will here be repeated:

First Principle.—Words of one syllable ending in *f*, *l*, or *s*, preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant.

EXAMPLES.—Bell, call, full, hiss, skiff, etc.

Exceptions.—As, if, is, of, us, gas, has, his, pus, this, thus, was, yes.

Second Principle.—Words of a single syllable ending in any consonant other than *f*, *l*, or *s*, do not double the final letter.

EXAMPLES.—Bad, can, far, hat, man, whip, etc.

Exceptions.—Add, ebb, egg, err, inn, odd, butt, buzz, purr.

Third Principle.—Words of a single syllable, and words accented on the last syllable, when that syllable ends with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, *double the final consonant* before all endings beginning with a vowel.

EXAMPLES.—Cut, *cutting*; dim, *dimmed*; compel, *compelling*; transfer, *transferred*, etc.

Fourth Principle.—In all cases other than those just described, and in *all* cases before endings beginning with a consonant, *the final consonant of the word is not doubled*.

EXAMPLES.—Add, *adding*; assail, *assailed*; prefer, *preference*; reckon, *reckoning*; tax, *taxing*; toil, *toiling*.

Note.—In such words as *travel*, *worship*, *kidnap*, *bias*, and a few others of the same sort, some lexicographers double the final consonant before the vowel endings; as in *traveller*, *worshipped*, *kidnapping*, etc. But the better rule is that indicated in the Third Principle above.

Fifth Principle.—In words ending in *e final* the *e* is *omitted* before vowel terminations, and *retained* before consonant terminations.

EXAMPLES.—Extreme, *extremity*, *extremist*; force, *forcible*; have, *having*; hope, *hopeful*; indulge, *indulged*; love, *lovely*; improve, *improvement*, etc.

Exceptions.—1. If the final *e* be preceded by *c* or *g*, the *e* is retained to preserve the soft sound of the consonant.

EXAMPLES.—Changeable, chargeable, traceable, etc.

2. In words ending in *ee* or *oe* the final *e* is also retained before vowel endings.

EXAMPLES.—Fleeing, seeing, shoeing, etc.

3. In *singeing* and *dyeing*, the *e* is retained to distinguish the words from *singing* and *dying*.

4. When *e final* is preceded by *dg*, the *e* is dropped before the syllable *ment*.

EXAMPLES.—Abridgment, judgment, lodgment, etc.

In the words *awful*, *duly*, *truly*, and *wholly*, the *e* is dropped.

Sixth Principle.—Final *y*, unless preceded by *a* or *o*, is changed into *i* before vowel and consonant endings.

EXAMPLES.—*Beauty*, beautiful; *easy*, easier; *happy*, happiest.

Seventh Principle.—Before the ending *ing*, final *ie* is changed into *y*.

EXAMPLES.—*Die*, dying; *lie*, lying, etc.

Eighth Principle.—Words ending in *ll* drop one *l* before the syllables *less* and *ly*. In *composition* one *l* is also dropped, except when the part of the compound containing *ll* is a noun or a verb, in which case both *l*'s are retained.

EXAMPLES.—*Full*, fully; *chill*, chilly; *skill*, skillless; *smell*, smellless; *all*, always; *hope*, hopeful; *recall*, fulfill, mole-hill, water-fall.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the Capitals, Italics, and Roman letters employed on page 12.

2. Give illustration of the letters called Script.

3. Point out the Vowels and Consonants in this stanza:

The spirit of the South-wind calls
From his blue throne of air,
And where his whispering voice in music falls,
Beauty is budding there—*Percival*.

4. Write ten words containing Diphthongs.

5. Read a paragraph showing the difference between Articulated and Unarticulated sounds.

6. Write ten words containing *w* or *y* as a vowel.

7. Write ten words containing *w* or *y* as a consonant.

8. Point out the Mutes and Liquids in the above stanza.

9. Write five words illustrating each of the Principles of Orthography.

10. Mention exceptions to the First, Second, and Fifth Principles.

III. Capital Letters.—Rules.

17. RULE I.—The first word of every sentence should begin with a capital.

EXAMPLES.—1. *He* has refused his assent to wholesome laws.

2. *We* must now appeal to the sword.

18. RULE II.—The first word of every line of poetry should begin with a capital.

EXAMPLE.—*The* piper loud and louder blew;

The dancers quick and quicker flew.—*Burns.*

Remark.—When, in humorous poetry, a word is divided at the end of a line, the detached syllables at the beginning of the next line should commence with a lower-case letter.*

EXAMPLE.—*The* only remedy I see

For such abuses is the re-
construction of society.

19. RULE III.—The first word of every direct quotation, if complete in sense, should begin with a capital.

EXAMPLE.—Pope says: "*To* err is human."

Remark.—A quotation, not complete in sense, should begin with a lower-case letter.

EXAMPLE.—We hear much said about "*the* popular whim."

20. RULE IV.—The first word of every expression having the form of a paragraph should begin with a capital.

EXAMPLES.—1. Congress has the power—

To lay and collect taxes;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations;

To promote the progress of science.

* "*Lower-case*" is the term applied by printers to the common size of type as distinguished from capitals.

2. Lord Byron's line,—

"The Cincinnatus of the West,"—

Was written of George Washington.

21. RULE V.—After a formal introductory expression, the first word of the subject-matter of a paragraph should begin with a capital.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Whereas*, The council of this city has been informed, etc.

2. *Resolved*, That fifty dollars be appropriated, etc.

22. RULE VI.—Every proper noun (see page 49) should begin with a capital.

EXAMPLE.—Burgoyne, invading New York from Canada, was defeated by Gates at Bemis's Heights and Saratoga.

Remark 1.—All names of persons, places, months, days of the week, etc., fall under Rule VI.

Remark 2.—Names of the seasons, unless personified, and points of the compass, are not proper nouns, and should begin with lower-case letters.

EXAMPLES.—1. In spring the winds are more variable than in summer.

2. We journeyed north two days and then turned to the east.

Remark 3.—When the names of the points of the compass are used to designate districts of country, they should begin with capitals.

EXAMPLE.—The North and the South met in arms.

23. RULE VII.—All titles of office, honor, respect, and distinction, should begin with capitals.

EXAMPLES.—Mr. President; Sir Philip Sidney; Lord Baltimore; Peter the Great; General Grant; my dear Sir, etc.

24. RULE VIII.—All proper adjectives (see page 98) should begin with capitals.

EXAMPLES.—A *Roman* citizen; the *Dutch* fleet; the *American* flag; the *Bourbon* dynasty; the *Baconian* philosophy.

25. RULE IX.—The names of things personified (see page 56) should begin with capitals.

EXAMPLES.—1. Next *Anger* rushed, his eyes on fire.
2. O *Moon*! in the night I have seen you sailing.
3. Wan *Treachery* with his thirsty dagger drawn.

26. RULE X.—All names and appellations of the Deity should begin with capitals.

EXAMPLES.—The *Lord*; *Jehovah*; the *Eternal One*; the great *First Cause*.

27. RULE XI.—In the titles of books, subjects of essays, and headings of chapters, every noun, verb, and adjective, should begin with a capital.

EXAMPLES.—*Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*; Pope's *Essay on Man*; the *Uses and Abuses of Language*, etc.

Remark.—In subjects, titles, headings, etc., the Articles (see page 99) are begun with lower-case letters—except at *the beginning* of the caption.

EXAMPLE.—*The Purse of the Penniless*.

28. RULE XII.—The names of famous events, historical eras, noted documents, striking natural phenomena, etc., should begin with capitals.

EXAMPLES.—The *Civil War*; the *Middle Ages*; the *Declaration of Independence*; the *Aurora Borealis*, etc.

29. RULE XIII.—The pronoun *I* and the vocative interjection *O* should always be written as capitals.

EXAMPLES.—1. He and *I* were there together.

2. And thou, *O* native Land, farewell!

Remark.—The vocative particle *O* should be carefully discriminated from the interjection *oh*. The former is used only before objects addressed, and is always a capital; the latter expresses surprise or sorrow, and, except at the commencement of a sentence, begins with a lower-case letter.

30. RULE XIV.—The running-titles of books, the subjects of essays, the headings of chapters, etc., are generally printed in types having the same form as capitals, but smaller—called **small capitals**; AS IN THESE WORDS. (See the headlines of these pages.)

Remark.—In all cases where capitals are not positively required by the foregoing Rules, lower-case letters should be used.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences correct the errors in the use of Capitals:

1. all men are created Equal.
2. forward, the Light brigade!
3. we welcome Thee, o shadowy night!
4. *Be it Enacted*, that a tax of one per cent., etc.
5. Here We saw an equestrian statue of general marion.
6. The lord appeared unto moses in horeb.
7. on tuesday, the 2d of march, wild geese were seen going North.
8. Hannibal was a carthaginian, and Scipio a roman hero.
9. the reformation, accomplished by martin luther in the sixteenth Century, was a Great event.
10. We won our liberties in the american revolution.
11. The gulf stream carries the warm waters of the tropics for thousands of Miles.
12. The Essay is entitled, "the recreations of the great."

IV. Italics.—Rules.

31. RULE I.—Words and expressions upon which it is desired to lay a special emphasis are printed in *ITALICS*.

EXAMPLES.—1. He gave his *consent*, but not his *approval*.

2. The great argument was answered with—*a sneer*.

Remark 1.—Not every expression slightly emphatic should be printed in Italics. To be so marked the emphasis should be distinct and peculiar.

Remark 2.—In writing, the words intended to be printed in Italics are marked with a single line drawn under them; as in these words.

Remark 3.—Words on which a very strong emphasis is desired, may be set in small capitals, or even in capitals.

EXAMPLE.—If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, I would never submit; *never*, NEVER, NEVER!

32. RULE II.—Titles of books and poems, and names of newspapers, magazines, and ships, are generally printed in Italics.

EXAMPLES.—Irving's *Sketch Book*; Tennyson's *Enoch Arden*; *New York Tribune*; *Scribner's Monthly*; the *Old Ironsides*.

Remark.—It is customary for a newspaper or magazine to set *its own name* in small capitals, instead of Italics.

33. RULE III.—Quotations from foreign languages should be printed in Italics.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Labor omnia vincit* is a good motto.

2. *Veni, vidi, vici*, were the words of the Roman general.

EXERCISES.

Write five sentences illustrating the various uses of Italics.

SECTION III. — SYLLABICATION.

34. DEFINITION. — **Syllabication** is that branch of Etymology which treats of the division of words into the parts of which they are composed.

1. A part of a word which may be pronounced with a single impulse of the voice is called a **Syllable**.

2. A word of only one syllable is called a **Monosyllable**.

EXAMPLES. — Brook, field, man, sky, tree.

3. A word containing two syllables is called a **Dissyllable**.

EXAMPLES. — Com-pel, far-thing, pa-per, sil-ver.

4. A word consisting of three syllables is called a **Trisyllable**.

EXAMPLES. — Im-plic-ate, mul-ti-ply, reg-u-lar.

5. A word consisting of more than three syllables is called a **Polysyllable**.

EXAMPLES. — Dis-es-tab-lish, in-vin-ci-ble, re-suſ-ci-tate.

35. In the division of words into syllables two methods are employed :

I. The English Method. — The object in this method is to separate the words into their elementary parts *without regard to pronunciation*.

EXAMPLES UNDER THE ENGLISH METHOD. — Me-lon, wi-dow, de-li-cate, a-stro-no-my, phi-lo-so-phy, ma-the-mat-ics, hy-po-the-sis, etc. The peculiarity of this method is that it throws the consonants as much as possible *into the beginnings of syllables*.

II. The American Method. — The object in this method is, first, to indicate *the proper pronunciation*, and, secondly, *to separate the prefixes and suffixes from the roots of the words*.

EXAMPLES UNDER THE AMERICAN METHOD.—Mel-on, wid-ow, del-i-cate, as-tron-o-my, phi-los-o-phy, math-e-mat-ics, hy-poth-e-sis, etc.

36. The following are the more common rules for syllabication according to the American Method:

1. Consonants are joined to the vowels which they modify in pronunciation.

EXAMPLES.—Em-blem-at-ic, can-non-ade, an-i-mos-i-ty, de-vel-op-ment, etc.

2. Prefixes and suffixes are separated from the root-words to which they belong.

EXAMPLES.—Farm-er, out-run, re-adjust-ing, super-fine, trans-gress-ed, etc.

3. In compound words the parts of the compound are separated in syllabication.

EXAMPLES.—Horse-car, ice-water, land-office, sea-foam, sun-dial, writing-machine, etc.

4. Such terminations as *cial*, *tial*, *sion*, *tion*, *ceous*, *cious*, *tious*, since they are pronounced as single syllables, must not be divided in syllabication.

EXAMPLES.—Ben-e-fi-cial, par-tial, con-fu-sion, ad-di-tion, cre-ta-ceous, lus-cious, cap-tious, etc.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the Monosyllables, Dissyllables, Trisyllables, and Polysyllables in Extract 1, page 31.³⁶

2. According to the American Method syllabify the words of paragraph 15, page 18.¹⁴

3. Syllabify five words according to the English Method.

4. Illustrate each of the rules under the American Method with five words.

SECTION IV.—ORTHOËPY.

37. DEFINITION.—**Orthoëpy** is that branch of Etymology which treats of the proper pronunciation of words.

The pronunciation of words has respect to *two considerations*:

1. The sounds of the letters; and,
2. Accent.

38. Sounds of Letters.—The following table exhibits the correct sounds of the letters of the English alphabet:

I. VOWELS—Regular Sounds.

The vowel **a** has two regular sounds: *ā long*, as in *fate*;
ă short, as in *fat*.

The vowel **e** has two regular sounds: *ē long*, as in *mete*;
ĕ short, as in *met*.

The vowel **i** has two regular sounds: *ī long*, as in *fine*;
ĭ short, as in *fin*.

The vowel **o** has two regular sounds: *ō long*, as in *note*;
ŏ short, as in *not*.

The vowel **u** has two regular sounds: *ū long*, as in *tube*;
ŭ short, as in *tub*.

The vowel **y** has two regular sounds: *ȳ long*, as in *style*;
ÿ short, as in *nymp*h.

II. VOWELS—Modified Sounds.

The vowel **a** has six modified sounds: *â circumflex*, as in *share*; *à Italian*, as in *father*; *â thin*, as in *grass*; *ɑ broad*, as in *talk*; *ɑ abrupt* (nearly equivalent to *ŏ short*), as in *what*; *ă obscure*, as in *many* (equivalent to *ĕ short*).

The vowel **e** has four modified sounds: *ê circumflex*, as in *ere*; *ē continental* (equivalent to *ā long*), as in *prey*; *ē narrow*, as in *ermine*; *ē obscure* (equivalent to *ĩ*), as in *pretty*.

The vowel **i** has two modified sounds: *ĩ continental* (equivalent to *ē long*), as in *machine*; *ĩ narrow*, as in *irk-some*.

The vowel **o** has six modified sounds: *ô broad*, as in *order*; *o plaintive*, as in *move*; *o abrupt*, as in *wolf*; *ô obscure*, as in *other*; *ōō long*, as in *food*; *ōō short*, as in *wool*.

The vowel **u** has four modified sounds: *u continental* (equivalent to *ōō long*), as in *rule*; *u narrow*, as in *put*; *û circumflex*, as in *urge*; *û obscure*, as in *busy*.

The vowel **y** has one modified sound: *ÿ narrow*, as in *myrrh*.

Note 1.—The vowels *e*, *i*, *o*, are sometimes *not pronounced*, in which case they are called *silent*; as in *fallen*, *cousin*, *mason*, etc.

Note 2.—The letter *w* (see page 14) is a vowel only when in combination with some other vowel.

III. DIPHTHONGS.

The sound of the diphthong **oi** is illustrated in the word *boil*.

The sound of the diphthong **oy** is illustrated in the word *joy*.

The sound of the diphthong **ou** is illustrated in the word *found*.

The sound of the diphthong **ow** is illustrated in the word *howl*.

Note.—All the other diphthongal and triphthongal combinations in the English language, such as *ae*, *ai* (as in *rain*), *ao*, *au*, *aw*, *awe*, *ay*, *aye*, *ea*, *eau*, *ei*, *co*, *cou*, *eu*, *ew*, *ewe*, *ey*, *eye*, *ia*, *ie*, *ieu*, *iew*, *io*, *oa*, *oe*, *ou* (as in *soup*), *ow* (as in *tow*), *owe*, *ue*, *ui*, etc., are equivalent to certain simple vowel sounds already defined in the above list: thus *ea* = *e long*, as in *beat*; *ei* = *e long*, as in *conceive*, or *a long*, as in *rein*; etc., etc.

EXERCISES.

1. Classify the Vowels contained in the words of Extract 2, page 8.
2. Illustrate with two words each the Modified vowel sounds of the alphabet.
3. Write five words illustrating the Silent vowels *e, i, o*.
4. Write five words illustrating the regular Diphthongs.
5. Write ten words illustrating the other Diphthongal and Triphthongal combinations.

IV. CONSONANTS.

The consonant **b** has one sound, illustrated in the word *bad*.

The consonant **c** has three sounds, illustrated in the words *came* (*c hard*), *center* (*c soft*—equivalent to *s*), *sacrifice* (*c = z*).

The consonant **d** has one sound, illustrated in the word *dare*.

The consonant **f** has one sound, illustrated in the word *fame*.

The consonant **g** has two sounds, illustrated in the words *gather* (*g hard*), and *gem* (*g soft*).

The consonant **h** has one sound, illustrated in the word *hand*.

The consonant **j** has one sound, illustrated in the word *jar*.

The consonant **k** has one sound, illustrated in the word *king*.

The consonant **l** has one sound, illustrated in the word *late*.

The consonant **m** has one sound, illustrated in the word *merry*.

The consonant **n** has two sounds, illustrated in the words *nut* and *linger*, the latter being a *semi-nasal* sound.

The consonant **p** has one sound, illustrated in the word *pay*.

The consonant **q** (always followed by *u*) has two sounds, illustrated in the words *queen* (in which *qu* = *kw*) and *coquette* (in which *qu* = *k*).

The consonant **r** has one sound, illustrated in the word *ruin*.

Note.—Some orthoëpists maintain that *r* has two sounds: first, the *trilled r*, as in *rock*; second, the *smooth r*, as in *fair*.

The consonant **s** has two sounds, illustrated in the words *set*, *has* (in which *s* = *z*).

The consonant **t** has one sound, illustrated in the word *tune*.

The consonant **v** has one sound, illustrated in the word *very*.

The consonant **w** has one sound, illustrated in the word *warp*.

The consonant **x** has three sounds, illustrated in the words *tax* (in which *x* = *ks*), *exist* (in which *x* = *gs*), and *xylograph* (in which *x* = *z*).

The consonant **y** has one sound, illustrated in the word *year*.

The consonant **z** has two sounds, illustrated in the words *zone*, *azure* (*z* = *zh*).

V. CONSONANTAL COMBINATIONS.

The combinations **ce**, **ci**, are equivalent to *sh*; as in the words *ocean*, *social*.

The combination **ch** has three sounds, illustrated in the words *child*, *chaise* (*ch* = *sh*), and *epoch* (*ch* = *k*).

The combination **gh** has three sounds, illustrated in the words *cough* (*gh* = *f*), *hough* (*gh* = *k*), *hiccough* (*gh* = *p*).

The combination **ng** has a nasal sound, illustrated in the word *swing*.

The combination **ph** has the sound of *f*, as illustrated in the word *phantom*.

The combination **sh** is pronounced as in the word *shame*.

The combination **ti** is equivalent to *sh*; as in the words *partial*, *addition*.

The combination **th** has two sounds: first, the *aspirate*, as in the word *think*; second, the *vocal*, as in the word *then*.

The combination **wh** is pronounced in the inverse order of the letters; as in the word *what*, pronounced *hwat*.

39. DEFINITION.—**Accent** is a peculiar stress of the voice on certain syllables of words.

First Principle.—Monosyllables are *common* as to accent; that is, they are either accented or unaccented, according to the position of the words as it regards *emphasis* and *harmony*.

EXAMPLES.—1. These are *men*, not *brutes*.

Here emphasis demands a strong accent on “*men*.”

2. We *hate* men only when we hate *ourselves*.

Here emphasis and harmony require that we pass over the word “*men*” with but a slight touch of the voice.*

Second Principle.—In words of two syllables the first is generally accented; as in *com'merce*, *log'ic*, *trav'el*.

Exceptions.—1. In dissyllables derived from French the second is accented; as in *depot'*, *finance'*, *romance'*.

2. About eighty adjectives and verbs having the same form as the nouns from which they are derived, take the accent on the second syllable; as in the following list:

NOUNS.	ADJECTIVES OR VERBS.
Ac'cent, stress of voice.	Accent', to pronounce with force.
Au'gust, the month.	August', grand.
Com'pact, an engagement.	Compact', close.
Min'ute of time.	Minute', small.

* In the case of *monosyllables*, emphasis is the *rhetorical*, and accent the *grammatical* expression for the same fact, namely, a stress of voice on the word.

3. A large number of miscellaneous words vary from the general rule by accenting the second syllable.

EXAMPLES.—Among', begin', compel', forget', molest', proclaim', remorse', sincere', etc.

Third Principle.—In most trisyllables the first is accented.

EXAMPLES.—Ac'cident, bot'aný, cic'atrix, dec'imal, for'titude, mer'ciless, pu'erile, sen'timent, etc.

Exceptions.—To this principle there are many exceptions, for which no general rule can be given.

EXAMPLES.—Allure'ment, beto'ken, deco'rum, explic'it, hori'zon, muse'um, etc.

Fourth Principle.—In polysyllables the accent is generally on the *antepenult*—that is, the third from the last.

EXAMPLES.—Aristoc'racy, barom'eter, cosmog'ony, diag'o-nal, mythol'ogy, procras'tinate, suprem'acy, etc.

Exceptions.—1. To this principle the largest exception is in the case of words ending in *-ation*, all of which accent the *penult*—that is, the syllable next to the last.

EXAMPLES.—Aberra'tion, complica'tion, multiplica'tion, etc.

2. Many other exceptions to this principle are found.

EXAMPLES.—Amer'icanism, disestab'lish, gen'eralize, mau-sole'um, ob'ligatory, peace'ableness, etc.

EXERCISES.

1. Illustrate the Consonant sounds with two words each.
2. Illustrate the Consonantal combinations with two examples each.
3. Write three sentences illustrating Accented and Unaccented monosyllables.
4. Illustrate the Second, Third, and Fourth Principles with five words each.
5. Write ten exceptions to the Fourth Principle.

SECTION V.—DERIVATION.

40. DEFINITION.—**Derivation** is that branch of Etymology which treats of *the sources* of the words of a language, and *the laws by which they are formed*.

41. The sources from which the words of the English language are taken are of **two kinds**:

1. *Present sources*,—that is, such word-forms in the language as have given rise to other word-forms. That part of etymology which treats of the present sources of English words is called **Paronymous Derivation**.

2. *Foreign sources*,—that is, such word-forms in other languages as have given rise to word-forms in the English language. That part of etymology which treats of the foreign sources of the language is called **Historical Derivation**.

I. Paronymous Derivation.

42. English words are derived from other English words in several ways:

1. Nouns from nouns.*

EXAMPLES.—*Bandage*, from *band*; *fishery*, from *fish*; *kingdom*, from *king*; *manhood* and *mankind*, from *man*; *horse's*, and *horses*, from *horse*; *child's* and *children*, from *child*; and all variations for gender, number, case, etc. (See pp. 35-40, 69.)

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2. Adjectives from nouns.

EXAMPLES.—*Manly*, from *man*; *queenly*, from *queen*; *starry*, from *star*; *wonderful*, from *wonder*; etc.

3. Verbs from nouns.

EXAMPLES.—To *crow*, from *crow*; to *game*, from *game*; to *mouth*, from *mouth*; to *name*, from *name*; etc.

* For meaning of *nouns*, *adjectives*, etc., see pages 32-34.

4. Nouns from adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—*Goodness*, from good; *happiness*, from happy; *purity*, from pure; *rationalism*, from rational; *truth*, from true; *wisdom*, from wise; etc.

5. Adjectives from adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—*Duller*, from dull; *happier*, from happy; *merriest*, from merry; and all examples of comparison. (See p. 110.)

6. Verbs from adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—To *cool*, from cool; to *long*, from long; to *slow*, from slow; to *tame*, from tame; etc.

7. Nouns from verbs.

EXAMPLES.—*Break*, from to break; *call*, from to call; *dance*, from to dance; *run*, from to run; etc.

8. Verbs from verbs, or from verbs and prepositions.

EXAMPLES.—*Become*, from be and come; *bedeck*, from be and deck; *interchange*, from inter and change; *gainsay*, from against and say; and all forms of verbs derived by conjugation. (See pages 134–135.)/64

9. Adverbs from adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—*Badly*, from bad; *calmly*, from calm; *plainly*, from plain; etc.

Remark.—A great number of paronymous words may be derived from a single word-form.

EXAMPLE.—Observe: *observer*, *observed*, *observing*, *observance*, *observation*, *observatory*, etc.

EXERCISES.

Illustrate the various kinds of Paronymous Derivation with two words each.

II. Historical Derivation.

43. The foreign sources of the English language are of several kinds:

1. The first and most important of the foreign sources of the English language is **Anglo-Saxon**. The following is a list of English words, with the Anglo-Saxon words from which they are derived:*

ENGLISH.	ANGLO-SAXON.	ENGLISH.	ANGLO-SAXON.
Afraid,	Âfered.	Land,	Land.
Ask,	Âxian.	Limb,	Lim.
Blood,	Blôd.	Many,	Mænig.
Book,	Bôc.	Moon,	Môna.
Cold,	Ceald.	Mother,	Môder.
Daughter,	Dôhtor.	Name,	Nama.
Day,	Dæg.	Nine,	Nigon.
Deep,	Deôp.	Ox,	Oxa.
Ear,	Eare.	Penny,	Penig.
Earth,	Eard.	Rest,	Ræst.
Eye,	Eâge.	Seven,	Seofon.
Father,	Fæder.	Stone,	Stân.
Friend,	Freônd.	Tame,	Tam.
Ghost,	Gâst.	Ten,	Tÿn.
Goat,	Gât.	Town,	Tûn.
Gospel,	Godspel.	Twelve,	Twelf.
Hare,	Hara.	Under,	Under.
Horse,	Hors.	Us,	Ûsie.
Hound,	Hund.	Water,	Wæter.
I,	Ic.	Wife,	Wif.
Island,	Îgland.	Worm,	Wyrn.

*These lists of derivatives are inserted merely to classify the sources of the English language and to illustrate some of the principles of derivation. The student who desires to study the subject further will do well to procure some brief and comprehensive manual of historical Etymology, such as Bigsby's *First Lessons in Philology*. It is not expected that these lists shall be committed by the student; but it is better that he should study them sufficiently to acquire a taste for such inquiries.

2. The following is a list of English words derived from **Latin**. The words in *Italics* come into English *through some form of French*—generally *Norman French*, or *Old French*:

ENGLISH.	LAT. OR NOR. FR.	ENGLISH.	LAT. OR NOR. FR.
Adduce,	Adducere.	Liberty,	Libertas.
<i>Affray,</i>	<i>Affrai.</i>	<i>Master,</i>	<i>Maistre.</i>
Animal,	Animal.	<i>Merchant,</i>	<i>Marchand.</i>
<i>Beauty,</i>	<i>Beauté.</i>	Nation,	Natio.
Cellar,	Cellarium.	<i>Number,</i>	<i>Numbre.</i>
<i>Chamber,</i>	<i>Cambre.</i>	Order,	Ordo.
Declare,	Declarare.	<i>Ostrich,</i>	<i>Ostruche.</i>
Doctrine,	Doctrina.	Parent,	Parens.
<i>Ease,</i>	<i>Easez.</i>	<i>Pleasure,</i>	<i>Plaisir.</i>
<i>Essay,</i>	<i>Essoyer.</i>	Postscript,	Postscriptum.
Fact,	Factum.	Question,	Questio.
<i>Feast,</i>	<i>Feast.</i>	Rose,	Rosa.
Fortune,	Fortuna.	<i>Savage,</i>	<i>Savaige.</i>
Glory,	Gloria.	Sentence,	Sententia.
<i>Herald,</i>	<i>Herald.</i>	Sign,	Signum.
Ignorant,	Ignorans.	<i>Taste,</i>	<i>Taster.</i>
<i>Jewel,</i>	<i>Jouel.</i>	Use,	Usus.
Just,	Justus.	Vacuum,	Vacuum.
<i>Kercheif,</i>	<i>Cowrechief.</i>	<i>Valet,</i>	<i>Vallet.</i>
Latitude,	Latitudo.	Vulture,	Vultur.

3. The following is a brief list of English words derived from the **Greek language**:

ENGLISH.	GREEK.	ENGLISH.	GREEK.
Automaton,	Automatón.	Martyr,	Mártyr.
Baptism,	Báptisma.	Organ,	Órganon.
Drama,	Drâma.	Rhinoceros,	Rhinócerôs.
Echo,	Êchó.	Skeleton,	Skeletón.
Geography,	Geôgraphía.	Stratagem,	Stratégēma.
History,	Historía.	Theater,	Théatron.
Lexicon,	Lexicón.	Tyrant,	Týrannos.

4. The following are examples of English words derived directly from **Modern French**:

ENGLISH.	MOD. FRENCH.	ENGLISH.	MOD. FRENCH.
Bagatelle,	Bagatelle.	Menagerie,	Ménagerie.
Beau,	Beau.	Mirage,	Mirage.
Depot,	Dépôt.	Reverie,	Rêverie.
Façade,	Façade.	Route,	Route.

5. The musical terms used in the English language are nearly all derived from **Italian**.

EXAMPLES.—Adagio, allegro, arpeggio, forte, piano, etc. Also the words banditti, cicerone, lazzarone, virtuoso, etc.

6. A few English words are derived from the languages of **Spain and Portugal**.

EXAMPLES.—Banana, bandana, bonanza, canon, condor, donna, hidalgo, señor, señora, tornado, etc.

7. The languages of **Asia** are also represented by an occasional word in English.

EXAMPLES.—The *Arabic* words admiral, assassin, algebra, alcohol, etc.; the *Turkish* words bashaw, cimeter, coffee, etc.; the *Persian* words caravan, divan, turban, etc.; the *Hindu* words calico, lac, etc.; the *Chinese* words bohea, nankeen, tea, etc.

8. A great many geographical names in English are derived from the languages of the **North American Indians**.

EXAMPLES.—Alleghanies, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Muskingum, Ohio, Tennessee, etc.

9. Some words other than names of places are also derived from the **Indian languages**:

ENGLISH WORDS.	INDIAN WORDS.	ENGLISH WORDS.	INDIAN WORDS.
Moccasin,	Makisin.	Totem,	Totem.
Squaw,	Squa.	Wampum,	Wampum.
Tomahawk,	Tomehagen.	Wigwam,	Wēkouomut.

SECTION VI.—CLASSIFICATION.

44. DEFINITION.—**Classification** is that branch of Etymology which treats of the arrangement of words into groups according to their offices.

Extracts.—**1.** The sun is the source of all terrestrial power. His warmth keeps the deep sea liquid, and the atmosphere a gas. He quietly lifts the rivers and the glaciers up the mountains; and thus the cataract and the avalanche shoot down with an energy derived immediately from him. Thunder and lightning are his transmitted strength. He blows the trumpet, he urges the projectile, he bursts the bomb. He rears the whole vegetable world, and through it the animal. The lilies of the field are his workmanship, the verdure of the meadows, and the cattle upon a thousand hills.—*Tyndall*.

2. Ah! then and there was hurrying to and fro,
And gathering tears and tremblings of distress;
And cheeks all pale which but an hour ago
Blushed at the praise of their own loveliness.—*Byron*.

3. O hark! O hear! how thin and clear,
And thinner, clearer, farther going!
O sweet and far, from cliff and scar,
The horns of Elfdand faintly blowing.—*Tennyson*.

45. An examination of the words which compose these extracts will show—

1. That many of them are *the names of things*.

EXAMPLES.—The words “sun,” “source,” “power,” “sea,” “gas,” “trumpet,” “bomb,”* etc.

Words which are the names of things are called **Nouns**.

2. In order to avoid unpleasant repetitions, nouns are sometimes omitted and other words put in their place.

*Let the student, under the direction of the teacher, go through the extracts carefully and point out every word which is the name of any thing. And so of each of the other parts of speech.

EXAMPLES.—The word “his” (first line) is used instead of the word *sun’s*; the word “he” is used instead of the word *sun’s*; the word “it” (eighth line) is used instead of the word *world*; etc.

Those words which are put in the place of omitted nouns are called **Pronouns**.

3. A third class of words are *joined to nouns in order to describe or limit their meanings*.

EXAMPLES.—The word “all” (first line) limits the meaning of the word “power;” the word “terrestrial” describes the meaning of the word “power;” the word “deep” describes the meaning of the word “sea;” the word “the” limits the meaning of the word “atmosphere;” etc.

Words which describe or limit the meanings of nouns are called **Adjectives**.

4. A large number of words are used *to assert something of other words*.

EXAMPLES.—The word “keeps” (second line) asserts something of the word “warmth;” “lifts” asserts something of the word “he;” “shoot” asserts something of “cataract” and “avalanche;” “blows” asserts something of the word “he;” etc.

Words which are used to assert something of other words are called **Verbs**.

5. Certain words are used *to limit the meanings of verbs*.

EXAMPLES.—“Quietly” (third line) limits the meaning of the verb “lifts;” “down” limits the meaning of the verb “shoot;” “faintly” (third extract) limits the meaning of “blowing;” etc.

Words which limit the meanings of verbs are called **Adverbs**.

6. Certain words *show the relation of nouns or pronouns to other words*.

EXAMPLES.—The word “of” (first line) shows the relation of the noun “source” to the noun “power;” the word “with”

shows the relation of the verb "shoot" to the noun "energy;" the word "from" shows the relation of the pronoun "him" to the verb "derived;" etc.

Words used to show the relation of nouns or pronouns to other words are called **Prepositions**.

7. A seventh class of words are used *to connect words or parts of sentences*.

EXAMPLES.—The word "and" (third line) connects the nouns "rivers" and "glaciers;" the word "and" (second extract) connects the two adverbs "then" and "there;" etc.

Words used to connect words and parts of sentences are called **Conjunctions**.

8. Lastly, a class of words will be found which are used *to express simple emotions of the speaker or writer*.

EXAMPLES.—The word "ah" (second extract) and the word "O" (third extract) are used to express simple emotions of the writer.

Words used to express simple emotions of the writer or speaker are called **Interjections**.

46. It will thus be seen that the words of the English language are composed of eight classes, called the **Parts of Speech**. They are :

- | | |
|----------------|-------------------|
| 1. Nouns; | 5. Adverbs; |
| 2. Pronouns; | 6. Prepositions; |
| 3. Adjectives; | 7. Conjunctions; |
| 4. Verbs; | 8. Interjections. |

EXERCISES.

1. Classify all the words of the Extracts on page 32. *36*
2. Write five sentences, underscoring the Nouns; five, underscoring the Adjectives; and so of the other Parts of Speech.

SECTION VI.—INFLECTION.

47. DEFINITION.—**Inflection** is that branch of Etymology which treats of *the forms of words* and the *changes which they undergo in sentences*.

I. CASE-FORMS.

48. The relation of a noun (or pronoun) in a sentence, generally expressed by some change in the form of the word, is called its **Case**.

I. The first and simplest form of the noun (or pronoun) is called the **Nominative Case**. It is that form of the noun (or pronoun) *of which something is said*.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Fishes* swim in the lake.

2. *He* has returned from market.

Here the italicized words are in the nominative case.

II. The second form of the noun (or pronoun) is that which denotes *possession* or *ownership*. This form of a noun (or pronoun) is called the **Possessive Case**.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *boy's* pony is playful.

2. The girls have learned *their* lesson.

Here the italicized words are in the possessive case.

III. Nouns (or pronouns) which are the objects of the actions expressed by verbs, or of the relations expressed by prepositions are in the **Objective Case**.

Remark I.—Nouns in the objective case have *the form of the same nouns in the nominative case*.

EXAMPLE.—The *boys* shouted to the other *boys* to come.

Here the second word "boys," in the objective case, has the same form as the first word "boys," in the nominative case.

Remark 2.—The *pronouns* have a different word-form to express the objective case.

EXAMPLE.—The traveler went wherever *he* pleased, and the guide went with *him*.

Here the pronoun “he” is in the *nominative* case; and “him,” standing for the same noun, is in the *objective* case.

EXAMPLES OF CASE-FORMS IN NOUNS.

1. The *horse* has broken his bridle. (Nom. case.)
2. The *horse's* bridle is broken. (Poss. case.)
3. The boy caught the *horse* in the field. (Obj. case.)
4. The *soldiers* have returned from war. (Nom. case.)
5. The *soldiers'* swords are thrown into a heap. (Poss. case.)
6. The people welcome the *soldiers* home. (Obj. case.)

EXAMPLES OF CASE-FORMS IN PRONOUNS.

1. When the hero dies, *he* is remembered. (Nom. case.)
2. *His* memory is cherished. (Poss. case.)
3. We bury *him* with honor. (Obj. case.)
4. If men would prosper, *they* must toil. (Nom. case.)
5. True men are trusted by *their* countrymen. (Poss. case.)
6. The evil that men do, lives after *them*. (Obj. case.)

EXERCISES.

1. Write five sentences illustrating the Case-forms of Nouns.
2. Write five sentences illustrating the Case-forms of Pronouns.

II. NUMBER-FORMS.

49. A further examination of nouns (and pronouns) will show that they have two forms to denote whether one thing is signified, or more than one.

50. That variation in the forms of nouns (and pronouns) which denotes whether one or more things are signified, is called **Number**.

1. That form of a noun (or pronoun) which denotes that one thing is signified is called **the Singular Number**.

2. That form of a noun (or pronoun) which denotes that more than one thing is signified is called **the Plural Number**.

Remark.—The same law holds true of pronouns and of nouns.

EXAMPLES OF NUMBER-FORMS IN NOUNS.

1. The *tree* grew by the broken *wall*. (Nouns in sing. num.)
2. The *trees* grew by the broken *walls*. (Nouns in plur. num.)
3. A true *man* loves his fellow *man*. (Nouns in sing. num.)
4. The *star* of evening is called *Venus*. (Nouns in sing. num.)
5. The *stars* glitter in the *skies*. (Nouns in plur. num.)
6. The *skies* are overcast with *clouds*. (Nouns in plur. num.)

EXAMPLES OF NUMBER-FORMS IN PRONOUNS.

1. The captain led his soldiers to the charge: *he* survived, but *they* fell in battle. (*He*, sing. num.; *they*, plur. num.)

2. Madame Roland was executed by the French Jacobins: *her* memory is cherished; *theirs*, detested: *she* was a heroine; *they* were butchers. (*She* and *her*, sing. num.; *they* and *theirs*, plur. num.)

3. We honor *him* who defends the truth. (*Him*, sing. num.)

4. We honor *them* who fight for freedom. (*Them*, plur. num.)

EXERCISES.

1. Write five sentences illustrating the Number-forms of Nouns.

2. Write five sentences illustrating the Number-forms of Pronouns.

III. GENDER-FORMS.

51. Some English nouns and most of the pronouns undergo a change in form in order *to distinguish the sex* of the object signified.

52. That variation in the form of nouns (and pronouns) which is used *to distinguish the sex of the objects signified*, is called **Gender**.

I. That form of a noun (or pronoun) which is used to distinguish the male sex is called **the Masculine Gender**.

EXAMPLE.—The *man* and the *boy* came together.

Here “man” and “boy” are of the masculine gender.

II. That form of a noun (or pronoun) which is used to distinguish the female sex is called **the Feminine Gender**.

EXAMPLE.—The *lady* and her *daughter* sat in the porch.

Here “lady” and “daughter” are of the feminine gender.

EXAMPLES OF GENDER-FORMS IN NOUNS.

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Actor,	Actress.	Horse,	Mare.
Baron,	Baroness.	Husband,	Wife.
Boy,	Girl.	Lad,	Lass.
Colt,	Filly.	Lion,	Lioness.
Count,	Countess.	Man,	Woman.
Duke,	Duchess.	Master,	Mistress.
Emperor,	Empress,	Poet,	Poetess.
Father,	Mother.	Prince,	Princess.
God,	Goddess.	Son,	Daughter.
Goose,	Gander.	Sultan,	Sultana.
Hero,	Heroine.	Widower,	Widow.

Remark.—Nouns which are the names of objects which have no sex, and nouns which are the names of objects having sex but without discrimination of the sex, *have no gender-forms* in English.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *tree* has *trunk*, *branches*, and *leaves*.

Here “tree,” “trunk,” “branches,” and “leaves,” being the names of things without sex, have no gender-forms.

2. The *birds* and *bees* were busy.

Here “birds” and “bees,” being the names of things with sex, but without discrimination of the sex, have no gender-forms.

53. Pronouns have an additional form to distinguish objects having no sex.

EXAMPLES.—1. The rose has lost *its* fragrance.

2. The toy is broken; *it* can not be restored.

Here “its” and “it” denote objects without sex.

EXAMPLES OF GENDER-FORMS IN PRONOUNS.

The lady and the gentleman went to the piano; *she* sang the song, while *he* turned the leaves of the music as *it* lay in *its* place before *her*. *She* asked *him* to join in the chorus, but *his* voice failed *him*, and the chorus went unsung.

Here the words referring to “lady” are “she” and “her;” those referring to “gentleman” are “he,” “his,” and “him;” and those referring to “music” are “it” and “its.”

EXERCISES.

1. Write five sentences illustrating the Gender-forms of Nouns.

2. Write five sentences illustrating the Gender-forms of Pronouns.

IV. PERSON-FORMS.

54. By examining the English pronouns it will be found that they stand sometimes for *the person speaking*, sometimes for *the person spoken to*, and sometimes for *the person (or thing) spoken of*.

EXAMPLES.—1. *I* do remember *me* that in *my* youth

I stood within the Coliseum's walls.—*Byron*.

2. And, Douglas, more I tell *thee* here,

Even in *thy* pitch of pride,

Here in *thy* hold, *thy* vassals near,

I tell *thee*, *thou*'rt defied!—*Scott*.

3. In youth *he* and *she* were school-mates. Now, though *they* are old, the memory of *their* friendship lingers with *them*.

In example 1, the pronouns "I," "my," and "me" stand for *the person speaking*; in example 2, the pronouns "thou," "thy," and "thee," stand for *the person spoken to*; and in example 3, the pronouns "he," "she," "they," "their," and "them" stand for *the persons spoken of*.

55. These variations in the forms of the pronouns are used to denote the grammatical property called **Person**.

Special Note.—*Nouns* have no variation in form to denote changes of person.

EXERCISES.

1. Write five sentences containing Pronouns of the First person.

2. Write five sentences containing Pronouns of the Second person.

3. Write five sentences containing Pronouns of the Third person.

V. COMPARISON-FORMS.

56. English adjectives sometimes denote qualities in an *absolute* sense or degree, sometimes in a *comparative* sense or degree, and sometimes in the *highest* or *lowest* sense or degree. Each of these senses or degrees has a *form of the adjective* peculiar to itself.

EXAMPLES.—1. The tree by the orchard-fence is *tall*; the maple by the spring is *taller*; and the poplar is *tallest*.

2. Wealth is *good*, but knowledge is *better*.

3. Socrates was the *wisest* of the Greek philosophers.

In these examples the adjectives “tall” and “good” express qualities in an absolute sense; “taller” and “better,” in a comparative sense; and “tallest” and “wisest,” in the highest sense.

57. These variations in the forms of adjectives are called **Comparison**.

Remark.—The comparison of adverbs (see page 179) is effected in precisely the same manner as the comparison of adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—1. The winds blew *loud* and *louder* still.

2. The swallow flies *higher* than the sparrow.

3. They who live *best* live *longest*.

EXERCISES.

1. Write three sentences containing Adjectives which denote qualities in an Absolute sense.

2. Write the same sentences, changing the Adjectives so as to express the Comparative sense.

3. Write three sentences containing Adjectives which express qualities in the Highest or Lowest sense.

VI. VERB-FORMS : PERSON.

58. English verbs have a change of form to express an agreement with the pronouns (or nouns) of which they affirm something.

EXAMPLES. — 1. I *know* not when the train *depart-s*.

2. Thou *know-est* not the meaning of the things thou *see-st*.

3. He *welcome-s* death who *hope-s* for nothing.

In example 1, the word "know" is the simplest form of the verb. That form is said to be of the *first person*, agreeing with the pronoun "I," which is of the first person. The verb "departs" is formed by adding *s* to the simple form of the verb *depart*; and "departs" is said to be of the *third person*, agreeing with the noun "train," which is of the third person.

In example 2, the verb "knowest" is formed by adding *est* to the verb *know*. "Knowest" is said to be of the *second person*, to agree in person with the pronoun "thou," of which it affirms something. The same is true of the verb "seest."

In example 3, the verbs "welcomes" and "hopes" are formed just as the verb "departs," in example 1, and are of the third person.

59. These changes in the forms of the verbs, to express agreement with the nouns (or pronouns) of which they affirm something, constitute the **Person of the Verb**.

EXERCISES.

1. Write three sentences containing Verbs in the First person.

2. Write the same sentences, changing the subjects so as to put the Verbs in the Second person.

3. Write three sentences containing Verbs in the Third person.

VII. VERB-FORMS: TENSE.

60. A further examination of verbs will show that they undergo a change in form *to denote the time of the action* which they express.

EXAMPLES.—1. The clerk *writes* the record in a book.

2. David Hume *wrote* the History of England.

3. The student is *writing* an essay.

4. The young man has *written* a letter to his parents.

In examples 1 and 3, the action is represented as happening *in present time*. In examples 2 and 4, the action is represented as happening *in past time*. From which we see—

1. That there are two forms of the verb used to denote actions happening *in present time*; and,

2. That there are also two forms of the verb to denote actions happening *in past time*.

61. The variations in form which verbs undergo in order *to express the time of the action* is called **Tense**.

EXAMPLES OF THE TENSE-FORMS OF VERBS.

1. Write, wrote, writing, written.

2. Fall, fell, falling, fallen.

3. See, saw, seeing, seen.

Remark.—Many verbs have *fewer than four* tense-forms.

EXAMPLES.—1. Sell, sold, selling, sold.

2. Trade, traded, trading, traded.

3. Cut, cut, cutting, cut.

EXERCISES.

Write ten sentences illustrating the Tense-forms of Verbs.

CHAPTER III.

THE NOUN.

I. CLASSIFICATION.

1. DEFINITION.—A **Noun** is the name of any thing.

2. Principle.—Whatever is either the *subject* or the *object* of our thought is a **Noun**.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *steamboat* was invented by Fulton.

2. The *highway* is paved with stone.

3. The *condor* inhabits the Andes.

4. The *willow* grows by the spring.

In these examples the words “steamboat,” “highway,” “condor,” and “willow” are the things *thought about*; that is, our thought proceeds from them as *subjects*. All subjects of thought are *nouns*.

5. We saw a *ship* in the harbor.

6. Behold the *sun*, the blazing *orb* of day!

7. Who has the *courage* to climb *Mont Blanc*?

In these examples the words “ship,” “sun,” “orb,” “courage,” and “Mont Blanc” are the *objects* of our thought; that is, they are the things *toward which our thinking is directed*. All such objects of thought are *nouns*.

Remark.—In example 1, the noun “Fulton;” in example 2, the noun “stone;” in example 3, the noun “spring;” and in example 5, the noun “harbor;” are *indirect* objects of thought.

3. By examining the things we think about, we shall find—

1. That some of them are *general ideas*, having *general* names;

2. That some of them are objects *arranged in classes*, a name being given to *the whole class*; and,

3. That some of them are things *not arranged in classes*, a *special name* being given to each particular thing.

4. *General names* and *the names of classes* of things are called **Common Nouns**.

5. Special and particular names are called **Proper Nouns**.

EXAMPLES.—1. Much *study* is required to gain a correct *knowledge* of *grammar*.

2. The *tree* in the *field* has been blown down by the *wind*.

3. Under the cold *sky* of *winter* the *traveler* toiled on through the *snow*.

4. *Suns*, *moons*, and *stars*, and *clouds* his *sisters* were;

Rocks, *mountains*, *meteors*, *seas*, and *winds*, and *storms*,

His *brothers*.

In example 1, the italicized words are the names of *general ideas*; and in examples 2, 3, and 4, the italicized words are the names of *classes of things*; that is, each of the nouns is the name of many objects of the same sort. All such names are Common Nouns.

5. Philadelphia, on the Delaware, was founded by William Penn in 1683.

6. America was discovered by the Norsemen, five centuries before Columbus.

7. The Romans, the Saxons, the Danes, and the Normans, successively invaded England.

8. Those Frenchmen who, in the South of France, abandoned the Pope and the Catholic Church, to follow the doctrines of the Reformation, are called Huguenots.

In these examples all the nouns begun with capital letters are

the names of *particular objects*. Those objects have no other things of the same sort classified with them. They stand alone in thought; and the special names given to them are called Proper Nouns.

DEFINITIONS.

1. A **Common Noun** is a general name, or the name of a class of things.

2. A **Proper Noun** is the name of some particular thing.

Note 1.—The common noun, as a *class* name, belongs alike to each of many things.

Note 2.—The proper noun is a *special* name, belonging to some particular thing or things, and not to any class of things.

6. An examination of common nouns will show—

1. That many of them denote the thing spoken of *without reference to any other thing*.

EXAMPLES.—House, brook, sky, trumpet, etc.

Here *the real and independent existence* of the things referred to, is denoted by the nouns which are the names of the things. Such nouns are called **Concrete Nouns**.

2. Certain other nouns denote that the things referred to are only *the qualities or attributes of some other things*.

EXAMPLES.—Wisdom, brightness, goodness, truth, etc.

Here the words “wisdom,” “brightness,” etc., imply that something is *wise, bright, good, true*, etc.; and from those things that are wise, bright, good, and true, the qualities of *wisdom, brightness, goodness, and truth* are taken.

The qualities taken from things *depend upon those things for existence*; and the names given to such qualities or attributes of things, are called **Abstract Nouns**.

Remark.—The process of taking a quality from any thing in which it inheres, is called **Abstraction**.

3. Certain nouns are the names of *groups or collections of objects taken together*.

EXAMPLES.—Flock, army, assembly, people, throng, host, etc. Such nouns are called **Collective Nouns**.

4. Certain other nouns are the names of *continuous actions*.

EXAMPLES.—Walking, flying, fishing, swimming, etc. Such nouns are called **Participial Nouns**.*

5. Another class of nouns is produced by using the *infinitives*† of verbs as the subjects or objects of thought.

EXAMPLES.—*To sleep* is pleasant. *To read* is profitable. Men dread *to die*. Strive *to win* the race.

Here “to sleep” and “to read” are the subjects, and “to die” and “to win,” the objects of thought. They are, therefore, nouns, and are called **Verbal Nouns**.

7. A few proper nouns have, in a measure, lost their special signification, and to that extent have become common nouns.

EXAMPLES.—1. The gorgons, chimeras, and centaurs are no longer feared.

Here the process is complete. The nouns “gorgons,” “chimeras,” and “centaurs,” which were once the special names of fabulous monsters, have lost their particular reference in a general sense. They are, therefore, common nouns.

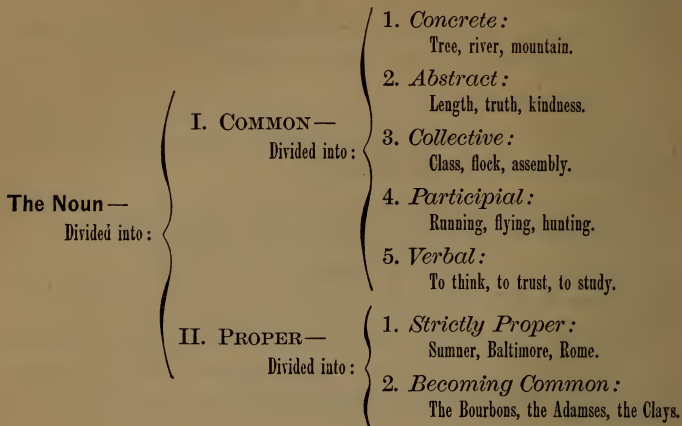
2. The Alexanders, Hannibals, Cæsars, and Napoleons of the world have been at once the enemies and the benefactors of mankind.

Here the reference to particular men is *partly* lost, though the nouns still retain something of their special character. It is better to regard such nouns as “*Proper Nouns becoming Common*.”

* For the meaning of “participial,” see page 130

† For the meaning of “infinitive,” see page 130

8. Scheme of the Noun:*



EXERCISES.

I. Classify the following Nouns :

Ant, barber, battle, cane, Cromwell, danger, daughter, easel, Essex, fame, fortune, gain, gaming, Harold, the Hancocks, the Haynes, hunting, January, kennel, lamb, location, music, noise, path, proverb, rain, rose, supper, tree, union, Union, Warren, water.

II. 1. Write ten sentences containing Common Nouns.

2. Write ten sentences containing Proper Nouns.

3. Write sentences illustrating Concrete, Abstract, Collective, Participial, and Verbal Nouns.

4. Write two sentences containing Proper Nouns becoming Common.

5. Write two sentences containing Proper Nouns that have become Common.

* Let all schemes be written on the blackboard, commented on, and carefully reviewed.

II. PROPERTIES.

9. Principle.—Certain things are *essential to the nature of a noun*.

1. Every noun must designate something *with or without sex*.
2. Every noun must signify *one thing or more than one*.
3. Every noun must denote—
 - (1.) The speaker;
 - (2.) The person spoken to; or,
 - (3.) The person (or thing) spoken of.
4. Every noun must denote—
 - (1.) The *subject* of some action or state;
 - (2.) The *object* of some action or relation; or,
 - (3.) The *possessor* of something.

Whatever is essential to the nature of the noun is called a **Property of the Noun**.

10. The Properties of Nouns are four in number: **Gender, Number, Person, and Case**. Every noun must be considered with respect to these four properties.

SECTION I.—GENDER.

11. DEFINITION.—**Gender** in Grammar is a property of nouns, denoting the sex of the object signified.

Remark.—Sometimes the distinctions of gender are marked in *the form of the word*; but in other cases they are not so denoted.

12. A noun, considered with respect to gender, may denote—

1. A being of the **male sex**;

2. A being of the **female sex**;
3. A being with sex, but **without discrimination of that sex**;
4. A thing with **no sex**.

Hence we have in Grammar **four genders**:

1. **The Masculine Gender**: including the names of all male beings; as, boy, man, king, horse, lion, etc.

2. **The Feminine Gender**: including the names of all female beings; as, girl, woman, queen, lioness, mermaid, etc.

3. **Undetermined Gender**:* including the names of all beings which have sex, but no discrimination of the sex; as bird, fish, rabbit, seal, sheep, elephant, etc.

4. **No Gender**:† including the names of all things that have no sex; as, hill, sky, prairie, truth, legislation, etc.

13. The masculine and feminine genders are discriminated from each other in one of three ways:

1. By the use of *distinct words*;
2. By a difference in *the termination of the words*;
3. By different *prefixes or suffixes* to a common word.

*The usual name of this distinction in the grammar of the noun is "*Common Gender*," but the expression is entirely erroneous, and ought to be rejected. In the English language gender is merely the verbal expression of sex. There neither is nor can be such a thing as *common* gender. All sex is either male or female. A common sex is something quite impossible. The true distinction in the present case, is that the gender is *undetermined*—not *common*. The expression "*undetermined gender*" is definitive and clear, but "*common gender*" is unthinkable and absurd. Observe, moreover, that we should not describe a given noun as being of *the* undetermined gender, but simply as of *undetermined* gender.

†The usual name of this distinction of the noun is *Neuter Gender*; but that expression is almost as objectionable as *Common Gender* applied to the third distinction. "*Neuter Gender*" means merely *neither* gender; and although, if a noun be of *neither* gender, it may be inferred that it is of *no* gender, yet it is preferable to express the distinct negation at once, and not leave the student to arrive at the true idea *by an inference*. The noun *tree* should be described simply as being of *No Gender*.

GENDER TABLE.—FIRST METHOD.

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Bachelor,	Maid.	Husband,	Wife.
Beau,	Belle.	Lad,	Lass.
Boy,	Girl.	Man,	Woman.
Brother,	Sister.	Master,	Mistress.
Buck,	Doe.	Nephew,	Niece.
Bullock,	Heifer.	Papa,	Mamma.
Cock,	Hen.	Ram,	Ewe.
Drake,	Duck.	Sir,	Madam.
Father,	Mother.	Son,	Daughter.
Gander,	Goose.	Stag,	Hind.
Gentleman,	Lady.	Uncle,	Aunt.
Hart,	Roe.	Wizard,	Witch.
Horse,	Mare.	Etc., etc., etc.	

GENDER TABLE.—SECOND METHOD.

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Abbot,	Abbess.	Hunter,	Huntress.
Actor,	Actress.	Idolater,	Idolatress.
Author,	Authoress.	Jew,	Jewess.
Baron,	Baroness.	Lion,	Lioness.
Benefactor,	Benefactress.	Marquis,	Marchioness.
Count,	Countess.	Monitor,	Monitress.
Czar,	Czarina.	Negro,	Negress.
Deacon,	Deaconess.	Poet,	Poetess.
Don,	Donna.	Priest,	Priestess.
Duke,	Duchess.	Prince,	Princess.
Emperor,	Empress.	Prophet,	Prophetess.
Executor,	Executrix.	Shepherd,	Shepherdess.
Giant,	Giantess.	Sultan,	Sultana.
God,	Goddess.	Tiger,	Tigress.
Heir,	Heiress.	Viscount,	Viscountess.
Hero,	Heroine.	Widower,	Widow.
Host,	Hostess.	Etc., etc., etc.	

GENDER TABLE.—THIRD METHOD.

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Bridegroom,	Bride.	Male,	<i>Female.</i>
Gentleman,	Gentlewoman.	Mankind,	Womankind.
<i>He</i> -bear,	<i>She</i> -bear.	Man-servant,	Maid-servant.
<i>He</i> -goat,	<i>She</i> -goat.	School-master,	School-mistress.
Landlord,	Landlady.	Etc., etc., etc.	

Remark 1.—A number of words occurring in the second table, and others of the same sort, show a tendency in present usage to drop the distinctive form for the feminine, and to use the masculine form *for both genders*. Such words as *author, editor, heir, hunter, monitor, poet*, etc., unless there is *a distinct reference to the sex*, are now properly applied to women. The tendency is to reject entirely the forms *author-ess, editress, monitress, poetess*, etc.

Remark 2.—It will be seen that in the third table the words expressing the two genders have always *a certain part in common*, and that the variable part is sometimes *a prefix* and sometimes *a suffix*.

Remark 3.—Nouns of undetermined gender and no gender have no distinctive forms by which they may be known. The *meaning* of all such words determines their classification as to gender.

Remark 4.—When nouns of no gender are *personified*—that is, when they are spoken of as persons—they take the gender of the persons to whom they are likened.

EXAMPLES.—1. The fairy Moon, queen of the night, dispenses *her* silver beams.

Here the noun is personified—spoken of as a queen—and the gender is feminine.

2. The mighty Sun, king of the heavens, drives *his* chariot through the sky.

Here the sun is personified—spoken of as a king—and the gender is masculine.

EXERCISES.

I. State the gender of the following Nouns:

Apple, author, book, Boston, camel, cat, dog, editor, elephant, fish, fox, goose, hat, husband, image, John, lady, lass, madam, merchant, nobleman, opinion, person, quince, rat, reynard, senator, smith, table, turtle, urn, veteran, widow, wife, witch, wolf.

II. 1. Write five sentences containing Nouns of the Masculine Gender.

2. Write five sentences containing Nouns of the Feminine Gender.

3. Write five sentences containing Nouns of Undetermined Gender.

4. Write five sentences containing Nouns of No Gender.

SECTION II.—NUMBER.

14. DEFINITION.—**Number** is a property of nouns, denoting whether one thing or more than one thing is signified.

1. That form of the noun which denotes that one thing is meant, is called the **Singular Number**.

2. That form of the noun which denotes that more than one thing is meant, is called the **Plural Number**.

15. Number is generally denoted by some *variation in the form of the word*; as, tree, trees; box, boxes; leaf, leaves; ox, oxen; etc.

Remark.—Sometimes there is no change in the form of the word itself, the same form of the noun being used to denote both singular and plural; as, deer, *deer*; heathen, *heathen*; quail, *quail*; salmon, *salmon*; series, *series*; species, *species*; vermin, *vermin*; etc.

16. The plurals of English nouns are formed in one of several ways:

1. By affixing *s* or *es* to the singular; as, dew, dew*s*; storm, storm*s*; fox, fox*es*; grass, grass*es*; etc. This is the *general* method of forming plurals.

2. By affixing *s* or *es* to the singular, with some other change in the form of the word; as, calf, cal*ves*; life, liv*es*; fly, fl*ies*; lady, lad*ies*; story, stor*ies*; etc.

3. By affixing *n* or *en* to the singular; as, ox, ox*en*; child, child(r)*en*; hose, hos*en*; etc.

4. By a change in the vowels of the noun; as, man, m*en*; woman, wom*en*; foot, fe*et*; goose, ge*ese*; etc. Sometimes both the vowels and the consonants are changed; as, mouse, m*ice*; cow, k*ine*; etc.

NUMBER TABLE.—FIRST METHOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Apple,	Apples.	Loss,	Losses.
Axe,	Axes.	Mate,	Mates.
Barn,	Barns.	Mole,	Moles.
Box,	Boxes.	Nut,	Nuts.
Boy,	Boys.	Owl,	Owls.
Camel,	Camels.	Pencil,	Pencils.
Cat,	Cats.	Pin,	Pins.
Day,	Days.	Poet,	Poets.
Door,	Doors.	Rat,	Rats.
Ear,	Ears.	Road,	Roads.
Field,	Fields.	Supper,	Suppers.
Fox,	Foxes.	Table,	Tables.
Goat,	Goats.	Toy,	Toys.
Hope,	Hopes.	Valley,	Valleys.
Land,	Lands.	Wren,	Wrens.
Lock,	Locks.	Etc., etc., etc.	

Remark.—A large majority of all the nouns in the English language fall in this table.

NUMBER TABLE.—SECOND METHOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Beef,	Beeves.	Loaf,	Loaves.
Calf,	Calves.	Self,	Selves.
Elf,	Elves.	Sheaf,	Sheaves.
Half,	Halves.	Thief,	Thieves.
Knife,	Knives.	Wife,	Wives.
Leaf,	Leaves.	Wolf,	Wolves.
Life,	Lives.	Etc., etc., etc.	

Remark 1.—It will be seen that the plurals in this table are formed by changing *f* or *fe* of the singular into *v* before *es*.

Remark 2.—Many nouns ending with *f* or *fe* have *regular* plurals; as, *fife*, *fifes*; *grief*, *griefs*; *staff*, *staffs*; etc.

Remark 3.—Nouns ending with *y* preceded by a consonant, might properly be inserted in the second class. The plurals of such nouns are formed by changing *y* into *i* before *es*; as, *cry*, *cries*; *fly*, *flies*; *lady*, *ladies*; *melody*, *melodies*.

NUMBER TABLE.—THIRD METHOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Child,	Child(r)en.	Ox,	Oxen.
Chick,	Chicken.*	Shoe,	Shoon.*
Hose,	Hosen.*	Etc., etc., etc.	

NUMBER TABLE.—FOURTH METHOD.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Cow,	Kine.	Mouse,	Mice.
Foot,	Feet.	Tooth,	Teeth.
Goose,	Geese.	Woman,	Women.
Man,	Men.	Etc., etc., etc.	

* Old plural

17. A number of nouns form their plurals in two ways — thus :

TABLE.

SINGULAR.	FIRST PLURAL.	SECOND PLURAL.
Brother,	Brothers (by birth),	Brethren (community).
Cloth,	Cloths (kinds of cloth),	Clothes (garments).
Cow,	Cows (individuals),	Kine (a herd).
Die,	Dies (for stamping),	Dice (for gaming).
Fish,	Fishes (individuals),	Fish (in aggregate).
Fowl,	Fowls (individuals),	Fowl (the species).
Genius,	Geniuses (men),	Genii (spirits).
Index,	Indexes (of books),	Indices (in algebra).
Medium,	Mediums (persons),	Media (things).
Memorandum,	Memorandums (books),	Memoranda (notes).
Pea,	Peas (individuals),	Pease (in aggregate).
Penny,	Pennies (by number),	Pence (by value.)
Shot,	Shots (discharges),	Shot (in aggregate).
Staff,	Staffs (military),	Staves (sticks.)

Remark.—In this table it will be observed that the two plurals *have different meanings*.

18. Another class of nouns have double plurals **with the same meanings**. Such nouns are generally *from foreign languages*.

TABLE.

SINGULAR.	ENGLISH PLURAL.	FOREIGN PLURAL.
Bandit (<i>Italian</i>),	Bandits,	Banditti.
Cherub (<i>Hebrew</i>),	Cherubs,	Cherubim.
Dogma (<i>Greek</i>),	Dogmas,	Dogmata.
Rabbi (<i>Hebrew</i>),	Rabbis,	Rabbins.
Seraph (<i>Hebrew</i>),	Seraphs.	Seraphim.
Virtuoso (<i>Italian</i>),	Virtuosos,	Virtuosi.

Remark.—In using the words found in this table the English plural is to be preferred to the foreign.

19. A few words have the foreign plural **only**.

TABLE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL
Arcanum,	Arcana.	Monsieur,	Messieurs.
Axis,	Axes.	Nebula,	Nebulæ.
Beau,	Beaux.	Nucleus,	Nuclei.
Chrysalis,	Chrysalides.	Phenomenon,	Phenomena.
Crisis,	Crises.	Proboscis,	Proboscides.
Datum,	Data.	Radius,	Radii.
Formula,	Formulæ.	Stimulus,	Stimuli.
Genus,	Genera.	Stratum,	Strata.
Hypothesis,	Hypotheses.	Terminus,	Termini.
Larva,	Larvæ.	Thesis,	Theses.
Madame,	Mesdames.	Vortex,	Vortices.

20. A large number of nouns **have no plural**. This is true generally of—

1. Abstract nouns; such as decorum, harshness, kindness, meekness, prudence, etc.

2. Certain products of the earth and of manufacture; as, barley, cider, flax, gold, tallow, etc. Sometimes, however, in the language of the market-place, words of this class have plurals; as, coffees, sugars, teas, wines, etc.

21. Another group of nouns have the plural form and signification **only**; as, annals, antipodes, archives, ashes, assets, bitters, compasses, forceps, goggles, goods, ides, nippers, nuptials, pincers, scales, snuffers, shears, spectacles, thanks, tongs, victuals, etc.

22. Still another class of nouns have the plural form with the **singular signification**; as, means, molasses, news, odds, pains, riches, tidings, etc.; also the nouns ethics, mathematics, optics, physics, politics, etc.

23. Compound nouns form their plurals in one of **four** ways :

1. By adding **s** to *the most important noun* in the compound; as, aids-de-camp, brothers-in-law, fruit-trees, step-mothers, etc.

2. By adding the suffix to *the noun* rather than to *the adjective* of the compound; as, attorneys-general, courts-martial, legal-tenders, etc.

3. By making plural both parts of the compound; as, Knights-Templars, men-servants, women-servants, etc.

4. By reserving the suffix until *the whole sense of the compound is developed*; as, forget-me-nots, seek-no-further, etc.

Remark 1.—In the case of such words as handful, spoonful, etc., the correct plurals are handfuls, spoonfuls, etc.

Remark 2.—In the case of compounds made up of a title and a proper name, usage is somewhat divided; but the true law of the language requires that the *s* be affixed to the *noun*, and not to the *title*. The forms, Miss Browns, Miss Martins, Miss Smiths, etc., are correct; so, also, the two President Adamses. The forms, the Misses Brown, Misses Martin, Misses Smith, are incorrect, though sanctioned by respectable usage.

Remark 3.—The plurals of proper nouns are formed by the addition of **s** or **es**—thus · Henry, Henrys; Jones, Joneses.

EXERCISES.

I. State the **number** of the following Nouns :

Alms, ants, archer, beaux, brethren, brooks, cattle, camphor, Cincinnati, debate, dentistry, donors, effects, freightage, gateways, gentry, heathen, hops, hose, Indian, jokes, lens, measles, matches, memoranda, nebulae, news, nuptials, paste, phenomenon, riches, spectacles, seraphim, strata, tongs, temperance, victuals.

II. 1. Write five sentences containing Nouns in the Singular Number.

2. Write five sentences containing Nouns in the Plural Number.

3. Write two sentences illustrating each of the Four Methods of forming the Plural Number.

SECTION III.—PERSON.

24. DEFINITION.—Person in Grammar is a property of the noun, denoting whether it represents *the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person (or thing) spoken of.*

These three different relations give rise to the three persons of the noun. They are:

1. The First Person;
2. The Second Person;
3. The Third Person.

Remark.—So far as etymology is concerned, the person of the noun is purely *ideal*. There is no inflection or change of any kind in the *form* of the word to denote the existence of such a property. The person of *pronouns* is strongly marked; but so far as nouns are concerned, the property exists only *in thought and in the relation of the words.*

25. The First Person of nouns denotes *the person speaking.*

EXAMPLES.—1. I, *Abraham Lincoln*, make this proclamation.

2. We, the *people* of the United States, do adopt this constitution.

3. They appealed to me, a *pauper*, for help.

4. Wallenstein came upon us *peasants* with the sword.

In the preceding examples the nouns "Abraham Lincoln," "people," "pauper," and "peasants" are in the first person, because they denote *the persons speaking*.

Remark.--Nouns in the first person are always *associated with pronouns in the first person*; and by the person of the pronouns the person of the nouns is determined. In the above examples the determining pronouns are "I," "we," "me," and "us."

26. The Second Person of nouns denotes *the person or personified thing spoken to*.

EXAMPLES.—1. Give way, my *boys*; let the procession pass.

2. O *King* of day, that shinest in the heavens!

3. Thou mighty *monument* of the illustrious dead!

4. I appeal to you, *men* of Athens.

In these examples the nouns "boys," "King," "monument," and "men" are in the second person, because they denote *the person or personified thing spoken to*.

Remark.—Nouns in the second person are generally, but not always, associated with certain pronouns *in the second person*. In the above examples the determining pronouns are "thou" and "you."

27. The Third Person of nouns denotes *the person or thing spoken of*.

Remark 1.—All nouns not in the first or second person, are, of course, in the third person.

Remark 2.—When nouns are in the third person there are *no determining pronouns*. In this case the person is absolute *in the noun itself*.

EXAMPLE.—The *battle* is fought and the *victory* won.

Here the nouns "battle" and "victory" are in the third person—not from any relation to a pronoun, but simply because they are the names of the things spoken of.

EXERCISES.

- I. State **the person** of the Nouns in the following sentences:
1. We, the Committee, beg leave to report as follows.
 2. The report is now before you, gentlemen.
 3. Mr. Speaker: I move to lay the report on the table.
 4. I appeal to all Americans, and you are Americans.
 5. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations.
- II. 1. Write six sentences illustrating the Person of Nouns.
 2. Write five sentences containing Nouns in the First Person.
 3. Write five sentences containing Nouns in the Second Person.
 4. Write five sentences containing Nouns in the Third Person.

SECTION IV.—CASE.

28. Principle.—The form and position of a noun may show its relations in a sentence.

29. That property of a noun which denotes its relation to the other words in a sentence is called **Case**.

The case of the noun is denoted either—

1. By the *form* of the word; or,
2. By the *position* of the word in the sentence.

An examination of sentences will show that the noun may occupy one of **four principal relations**:

30. The noun may be *the subject* of the thought expressed in the sentence.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The *rain* came down in a torrent.
 2. The *sun* rose at six o'clock.

3. The *thermometer* stood at 60°.

In these examples the nouns "rain," "sun," and "thermometer" are the names of *the things thought about*, and are therefore called the *subjects* of the sentences.

31. The noun may denote *the possessor* of something.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *bird's* song greets the morning.

2. The *mountain's* brow is hidden in the mist.

3. We heard the *hunter's* rifle.

In these examples the nouns "bird's," "mountain's," and "hunter's" denote the possessors of the three things, "song," "brow," and "rifle."

METHODS OF FORMING THE POSSESSIVE.

1. In the singular number add an apostrophe (') and the letter *s* to the nominative form of the noun.

EXAMPLES.—Boy, boy's; book, book's; Ralph, Ralph's; garden, garden's; lynx, lynx's; tree, tree's; etc.

2. In the plural number, when the plural ends in *s*, the possessive is formed by the addition of an apostrophe (') *only*.

EXAMPLES.—Boys, boys'; books, books'; gardens, gardens'; lynxes, lynxes'; trees, trees'; etc.

3. If the nominative plural ends in some letter other than *s*, the possessive is formed as in the singular number, by the addition of the apostrophe (') and *s*.

EXAMPLES.—Children, children's; men, men's; etc.

Remark 1.—In the case of certain nouns ending with the sound of *s*, the attempt has been made to form an abbreviated possessive singular by adding the apostrophe *only*—thus: Augustus' supper; conscience' sake; Felix' opinion; Phillips' oration; etc. Such usage is a vain affectation of speech, and

ought to be abandoned. The true forms are these: Augustus's supper; conscience's sake; Felix's opinion; Phillips's oration; Loomis's *Trigonometry*; the princess's sister; Socrates's *Dialogues*; etc.

Remark 2.—The relation denoted by the possessive case is frequently expressed by the preposition *of*, followed by the noun in the *objective* case.

EXAMPLES.—The speech of Sumner = Sumner's speech; the father of Henry = Henry's father; the hope of all true men = all true men's hope; etc.

Remark 3.—In forming the possessive case of compound or complex names the apostrophe (') and the *s* are affixed to the last word of the combination; as, Marcus Tullius Cicero's oration; my brother-in-law's possessions; etc.

Remark 4.—In *pronouncing* the possessive singular the suffix 's sometimes constitutes a syllable, and is pronounced like the syllable *es*; as, horse's, pronounced *horses*; marsh's, pronounced *marshes*; watch's, pronounced *watches*. In general, however, the suffix 's coalesces with the preceding syllable, merely modifying it by the addition of the sound of *s* sharp, or *s* = *z*; as, cat's, pronounced *catz*; garden's, pronounced *gardenz*; man's, pronounced *manz*; tree's, pronounced *treez*; etc.

Remark 5.—The *origin* of the suffix 's is this: In Anglo-Saxon the genitive (= possessive) ending was *es*. In the formation of the *English* possessive the *s* of the Anglo-Saxon genitive was retained, and the place of the omitted *e* was marked with an apostrophe ('). The Anglo-Saxon *fiscas*, meaning of a fish, became fish's; *mannes*, meaning of a man, became man's; *wulfes*, meaning of a wolf, became wolf's; *smithes*, meaning of a smith, became smith's; etc.

32. The noun may be the *object* of the action expressed by a verb, or of the *relation* expressed by a preposition.

EXAMPLES.—1. We saw the *general* on horseback.

2. The fishermen drew the *net* to the shore.

3. The soldiers raised the old *flag* over the fort.

In these examples the nouns “general,” “net,” and “flag,” denote the objects of the actions expressed by the verbs “saw,” “drew,” and “raised;” and the nouns “horseback,” “shore,” and “fort,” are the objects of the relations expressed by the prepositions “on,” “to,” and “over.”

33. The noun may be *independent* of the rest of the sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. The master said, “Hither, Will.”

2. Soldiers, stand to your posts.

3. “O night

And storm, and darkness, ye are wondrous strong!”

In these examples the nouns “Will,” “soldiers,” “night,” “storm,” and “darkness” are *addressed*. The relation between them and the other parts of the sentences *is broken*, and the nouns thus set off are said to be *independent*.

4. The *boy!* oh, where was he?

5. In he plunged, the daring *swimmer*.

In these examples the nouns “boy” and “swimmer” are *not necessary to the syntax of the sentences*. Such superfluous words are used by a figure of speech called **Pleonasm**, and are, like nouns addressed, said to be *independent*.

6. The *rain* having ceased, the march continued.

7. *Faith* being broken, who can restore it?

In these examples the nouns “rain” and “faith” are associated in construction with the participial expressions “having ceased” and “being broken.” Nouns used in this manner are also said to be *independent*.

Remark 1.—The *form* of the noun independent is always identical with the *nominative form* of the same noun; and for this reason some grammarians have given the name of

Nominative Absolute to the noun in independent relation. But an examination of *pronouns* will show that the case independent is frequently expressed by the *objective* form. The common expression “Ah, *me*” shows conclusively that the case independent is not necessarily a *nominative* case.

Remark 2.—In Anglo-Saxon the case independent was the *Dative*—a case lost in English.

34. It will thus be seen that nouns have **four cases** :

1. The first denotes that the noun is *the subject* of the sentence, and is called the **Nominative Case**.

2. The second denotes *the possessor*, and is called the **Possessive Case**.

3. The third denotes *the object* of an action expressed by a verb, or of the relation expressed by a preposition, and is called the **Objective Case**.

4. The fourth denotes *the independent relation* of nouns addressed, or otherwise detached from close syntactical connection, and is called the **Independent Case**.

· III. DECLENSION.

35. The process of forming the different cases and numbers of a noun is called **Declension**.

DECLENSION TABLES.

I. COMMON NOUN—REGULAR PLURAL.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Book,	<i>Nom.</i>	Books,
<i>Poss.</i>	Book's,	<i>Poss.</i>	Books',
<i>Obj.</i>	Book,	<i>Obj.</i>	Books,
<i>Ind.</i>	Book.	<i>Ind.</i>	Books.

II. COMMON NOUN—PLURAL IN **IES**.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Lady,	<i>Nom.</i>	Ladies,
<i>Poss.</i>	Lady's,	<i>Poss.</i>	Ladies',
<i>Obj.</i>	Lady,	<i>Obj.</i>	Ladies,
<i>Ind.</i>	Lady.	<i>Ind.</i>	Ladies.

III. COMMON NOUN—IRREGULAR PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	Man,	<i>Nom.</i>	Men,
<i>Poss.</i>	Man's,	<i>Poss.</i>	Men's,
<i>Obj.</i>	Man,	<i>Obj.</i>	Men,
<i>Ind.</i>	Man.	<i>Ind.</i>	Men.

IV. COMMON NOUN—IRREGULAR PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	Mouse,	<i>Nom.</i>	Mice,
<i>Poss.</i>	Mouse's,	<i>Poss.</i>	Mice's,
<i>Obj.</i>	Mouse,	<i>Obj.</i>	Mice,
<i>Ind.</i>	Mouse.	<i>Ind.</i>	Mice.

V. COMMON NOUN—PLURAL SAME AS SINGULAR.

<i>Nom.</i>	Sheep,	<i>Nom.</i>	Sheep,
<i>Poss.</i>	Sheep's,	<i>Poss.</i>	Sheep's,
<i>Obj.</i>	Sheep,	<i>Obj.</i>	Sheep,
<i>Ind.</i>	Sheep.	<i>Ind.</i>	Sheep.

VI. COMMON NOUN ABSTRACT—PLURAL WANTING.

<i>Nom.</i>	Prudence,	<i>Nom.</i>	——
<i>Poss.</i>	Prudence's,	<i>Poss.</i>	——
<i>Obj.</i>	Prudence,	<i>Obj.</i>	——
<i>Ind.</i>	Prudence.	<i>Ind.</i>	——

VII. COMMON NOUN—SINGULAR WANTING.

<i>Nom.</i>	——	<i>Nom.</i>	Scissors,
<i>Poss.</i>	——	<i>Poss.</i>	Scissors',
<i>Obj.</i>	——	<i>Obj.</i>	Scissors,
<i>Ind.</i>	——	<i>Ind.</i>	Scissors.

VIII. PROPER NOUN—PLURAL WANTING.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Jefferson,	<i>Nom.</i>	——
<i>Poss.</i>	Jefferson's,	<i>Poss.</i>	——
<i>Obj.</i>	Jefferson,	<i>Obj.</i>	——
<i>Ind.</i>	Jefferson.	<i>Ind.</i>	——

Remark.—Participial nouns and verbal nouns are **indeclinable**.

EXERCISES.

I. State the **case** of the Nouns in the following sentences, and in each instance *give reason for the case*:

1. Brave men succeed.
2. Study matures the mind.
3. Lincoln was born in a rude cabin.
4. The roar of Niagara Falls can be heard for miles.
5. The merchant doubted the boy's honesty.
6. An old book says: "Every man's house is his castle."
7. Star of the mead, sweet daughter of the day,
Whose opening flower invites the morning ray.
8. The melancholy days have come,
The saddest of the year,
Of wailing winds and naked woods,
And meadows brown and sere.—*Bryant*.

II. 1. Write five sentences containing Nouns in the Nominative Case.

2. Write five sentences containing Nouns in the Possessive Case.

3. Write five sentences containing Nouns in the Objective Case.

4. Write five sentences containing Nouns in the Independent Case.

5. **Decline** the following Nouns: Man, girl, wisdom, sky, coffee, Savannah, Aix-la-Chapelle, Horace, tidings.

IV. PARSING.

36. Principle.—The words of a sentence may be described by giving their grammatical properties.

37. The process of describing words in their grammatical properties and relations is called **Parsing**.

Remark.—As it regards the *noun*, parsing consists in giving in proper order the *classification*, *gender*, *number*, *person*, and *case* of the noun; and to this must be added a *rule of Syntax* by which the government or agreement of the noun in the sentence is expressed.*

ORDER OF PARSING THE NOUN.

38. The **order of parsing** a noun is, therefore, to state that it is—

1. A Noun, and why;
2. Common or Proper, and why; *and if Common*—
3. Concrete, Abstract, Collective, Participial or Verbal, and why; *and whether Common or Proper*—
4. Its Gender, and why;
5. Its Number, and why;
6. Its Person, and why;
7. Its Case, and why; and,
8. A Rule of Syntax.

Remark.—It will be seen that *the first three* of the above topics determine the *classification* of the noun; *the next four*, its *properties*; and *the last*, its *syntactical relation*.

* In general it will be found preferable not to mingle the Rules of Syntax with the etymological parts of Grammar. Such commingling of things tends to introduce confusion, and to destroy in the student's mind the necessary distinction between the two great divisions of the subject before him.

MODEL FOR PARSING THE NOUN.

I. The boatman ascended the river to Wheeling.

Boatman is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is the name of an object belonging to a class; concrete, because it denotes the simple existence of the object; of the masculine gender, because it is the name of a male; singular number, because it implies but one; third person, because it denotes the person spoken of; in the nominative case, being the subject of the sentence, according to a rule of syntax which requires that the subject of a sentence shall be in the nominative case.

River is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is the name of an object belonging to a class; concrete, because it denotes the independent existence of the object; of no gender, because it signifies a thing without sex; singular number, it implies but one; third person, denoting the thing spoken of; in the objective case, being the object of the action expressed by the verb "ascended," according to a rule of syntax which requires that the object of an action expressed by a verb shall be in the objective case.

Wheeling is a noun, because it is a name; proper, because it is the name of a particular object; concrete, denoting the independent existence of the thing signified; of no gender, denoting a thing without sex; singular number, it implies but one; third person, spoken of; in the objective case, being the object of the relation expressed by the preposition "to," according to a rule of syntax which requires that the object of the relation expressed by a preposition shall be in the objective case.

II. Man's strength shall fail.

Man's is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is a name denoting a class; concrete, because it denotes the independent existence of the object; masculine gen-

der, because it denotes the male sex; singular number, because it implies but one; third person, spoken of; in the possessive case, denoting the possessor of "strength," according to a rule of syntax which requires that the name of the possessor of a thing shall be in the possessive case.

Strength is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is a general name; abstract, because it denotes a quality belonging to some other thing; of no gender, denoting a thing without sex; singular number, it implies but one; third person, spoken of; in the nominative case, being the subject of the sentence, according to a rule of syntax which requires that the subject of a sentence shall be in the nominative case.

III. Sheep are animals.

Sheep is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it denotes a class of objects; concrete, denoting the independent existence of the objects; of undetermined gender, denoting objects without discrimination of sex; plural number, denoting more than one; third person, spoken of; in the nominative case, being the subject, according to a rule of syntax which requires that the subject of a sentence shall be in the nominative case.

Animals is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is the name of a class of objects; concrete, denoting the independent existence of the objects; undetermined gender, denoting objects without discrimination of sex; plural number, it implies more than one; third person, spoken of; in the nominative case, being in the predicate,* after the verb "are," according to a rule of syntax which requires that a noun in the predicate, after the verb *to be*, shall be in the same case as the subject.

* For the meaning of "predicate," see pages 204, 210.

IV. Luther, the great German reformer, lived in the sixteenth century.

Luther is a noun, because it is a name; proper, etc., etc.

Reformer is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is the name of a class; concrete, denoting the independent existence of the object; masculine gender, denoting the male sex; singular number, it implies but one; third person, it denotes the person, spoken of; in the nominative case, agreeing with the noun "Luther," according to a rule of syntax which requires that a noun referring to the same person or thing expressed by another noun, shall be in the same case with it by apposition.*

Century is a noun, because it is a name; common, etc., etc.

V. The class was dismissed.

Class is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is a general name; collective, because it denotes an assemblage of objects; undetermined gender, having no discrimination of sex; singular number, it implies but one class; third person, spoken of; and in the nominative case, etc.

VI. O days of youth, farewell!

Days is a noun, because it is a name; common, because it is the name of a class; concrete, denoting the independent existence of the objects signified; no gender, being without sex; plural number, denoting more than one; second person, spoken to; and in the independent case, according to a rule of syntax which requires that nouns addressed shall be in the independent case.

Youth is a noun, etc., etc.

Remark I.—All nouns may be, with slight modifications, parsed according to the above models.

* For the meaning of "apposition," see page 207.

Remark 2.—After the *full* model of parsing the noun has been mastered, an *abridged* model may be substituted.

ABRIDGED MODEL FOR PARSING THE NOUN.

The horse is grazing in the meadow.

Horse is a noun; common; concrete; masculine gender; singular number; third person; nominative case.

Meadow is a noun; common; concrete; no gender; singular number; third person; objective case.

EXERCISES IN PARSING.

According to the *full model*, parse all the Nouns in the following sentences:

1. The stars shine by night.
2. The tides of ocean follow the moon.
3. Maples and oaks grow in the forest.
4. Molasses is imported from the West Indies.
5. Washington Irving wrote the *Sketch Book*.
6. Man often mourns the loss of riches.
7. What news is brought by the cable from Europe?
8. The annals of war contain the record of many battles.
9. The bones of the Crusaders and the broken fragments of their weapons were scattered along all the roads from Ravenna to Acre.
10. I heard the trailing garments of the Night
Sweep through her marble halls!
I saw her sable skirts all fringed with light
From the celestial walls.—*Longfellow*.
11. The stag at eve had drunk his fill,
Where danced the moon on Monan's rill,
And deep his midnight lair had made
In lone Glenartney's hazel shade.—*Scott*.

12. I stood in Venice, on the Bridge of Sighs,
 A palace and a prison on each hand;
 I saw from out the wave her structures rise
 As from the stroke of the enchanter's wand:
 A thousand years their dewy wings expand
 Around me, and a dying glory smiles
 O'er the far times when many a subject land
 Looked to the winged Lion's marble piles,
 Where Venice sate in state, throned on her hundred
 isles. — *Byron*.

According to *the abridged model*, parse all the Nouns in the following sentences:

1. Labor conquers all things.
2. The sheep are grazing in the pasture.
3. A flock of quail flew up from their covert.
4. The people of this island were barbarians.
5. Consider the lilies of the field, how they grow.
6. Before the days of Columbus, America was visited by the Northmen.
7. Dickens has given us graphic sketches of the street-life of London.
8. Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears;
 I come to bury Cæsar, not to praise him. — *Shakespeare*.
9. Clasp, angel of the backward look,
 The brazen covers of thy book. — *Whittier*.
10. Full many a gem of purest ray serene
 The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear;
 Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
 And waste its sweetness on the desert air. — *Gray*.

CHAPTER IV.

THE PRONOUN.

I. CLASSIFICATION.

1. Principle.—Persons or things may be represented by words other than *the names* of those persons or things.

2. Any word which represents a person or thing, but is not *the name* of that person or thing, is a **Pronoun**.

3. Pronouns may represent the objects for which they stand in **four ways**:

1. By standing directly for *the object itself*, or for *the name* of the object.

2. By a *direct relation* or *reference* to the object.

3. By an *inquiry* or *question* concerning the object.

4. By a *general reference* to the object.

4. The first class of pronouns represent either *the object itself* or *the name* of the object.

EXAMPLES.—1. *I* was present when *you* made the assertion.

2. *Thou* knowest not the purpose which *we* have formed.

3. Let there be peace between *thee* and *me*.

In these examples the pronouns “*I*,” “*you*,” “*thou*,” “*we*,” “*thee*,” and “*me*,” stand directly for *the persons speaking* or the persons spoken to. The reference is not to the *names* of the persons, but to the *persons themselves*.

4. A man fails in nothing which *he* boldly undertakes.

5. The soldiers retreated when *they* saw the enemy.

6. Charlie and Tom bought a book; *they* read *it* through, and then sold *it* to a lad who met *them* at *their* house.

In example 4, the pronoun "he" stands for the noun "man;" in example 5, the pronoun "they" stands for the noun "soldiers;" in example 6, the pronouns "they," "their," "them," stand for the nouns "Charlie" and "Tom," and the pronoun "it" stands for the noun "book."

5. The pronouns *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, and *it*, with their plurals *we*, *you*, *ye*, and *they*, express grammatical person by a change in the form of the word.

EXAMPLES.—*I*, first person; *thou*, second person; *he*, third person, etc. Hence the name of *personal* pronouns applied to this group of words.

Remark.—The name *pronoun* (= *for* a noun) is hardly correct when applied to the words *I*, *thou*, *we*, *you*, etc. A truer distinction would be to call them **Personal Nouns**.

6. Pronouns which stand *directly for the object* referred to, or for *the name* of that object, are called **Personal Pronouns**.

The Personal Pronouns are *I*, *thou*, *he*, *she*, *it*, *we*, *ye*, *you*, *they*, and their derived cases.

Remark.—The word for which a pronoun stands is called its **Antecedent**.

7. The second class of pronouns represent the objects for which they stand by expressing a *direct relation*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The student *who* was sick has recovered.
 2. The man *whose* house was burned, has built another.
 3. The orator *whom* we so much admired, is dead.
 4. The things *which* pleased us please no more.
 5. The hopes *that* once were bright have faded.

In example 1, the pronoun "who" stands for the noun "student" by *relation*; that is, it relates to the noun as its antecedent. By this means we have two sentences in one. The two sentences are:

- a. The student has recovered;
- b. The student was sick.

Instead of expressing the two thoughts separately, we bind them together by omitting the noun "student" in the second sentence and inserting the pronoun "who" in its place—thus:

- a. The student has recovered;
- b. *Who* was sick = The student who was sick has recovered.

In examples 2, 3, 4, and 5, the pronouns "whose," "whom," "which," and "that," stand for or represent their antecedents "man," "orator," "things," and "hopes," by *relation*; that is, they relate to those nouns as their antecedents.

8. Pronouns which represent their antecedents by *relation* are called **Relative Pronouns**.

The Relative Pronouns are **who**, **which**, **what**, and **that**.

9. The third class of pronouns refer to their antecedents by *interrogation*; that is, they ask questions *the answers to which are the antecedents*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *Who* is that man on horseback?
 2. *Whose* work is this?
 3. *Which* is the road to Columbus?
 4. *What* has been the history of political parties?

We may answer these questions thus:

- (1.) General Sheridan.
- (2.) It is the work of a boy.
- (3.) The left-hand road.
- (4.) A record of inconsistencies.

In these four answers the nouns "General Sheridan," "work," "road," and "record," are the antecedents of the

pronouns “who,” “whose,” “which,” and “what,” in the preceding questions.

10. Pronouns which refer to their antecedents by *interrogation* are called **Interrogative Pronouns**.

The Interrogative Pronouns are **who**, **which**, and **what**.

Remark.—In the case of the interrogative pronoun, the antecedent goes *before* the pronoun *in thought*, but *after* it in *expression*.

EXAMPLE.—*Who* wrote the Declaration of Independence? Answer, *Jefferson*.

Here the noun “Jefferson” stands *after* the pronoun “who,” and for this reason some grammarians have preferred to call the noun to which an interrogative pronoun refers, its *Subsequent* instead of its *Antecedent*.

11. The fourth class of pronouns point to their antecedents by a *general reference*, without specifying any particular object.

EXAMPLES.—1. *One* would suppose that spring had come.

2. *Some* seem to think that labor is disgraceful.

3. *Others* have been in doubt, as well as we.

In these examples the pronouns “one,” “some,” and “others,” refer to their antecedents *in a general way*, without pointing out any particular persons.

In the first sentence “one” = any body. In the second example “some” points to a class of persons without indicating individuals; “others” expresses a similar relation.

12. Pronouns which point to their antecedents by a *general reference* are called **Indefinite Pronouns**.

The principal Indefinite Pronouns are **all**, **another**, **any**, **certain**, **divers**, **few**, **it**, **little**, **many**, **none**, **one**, **other**, **some**, and **they**.

13. We thus find that pronouns are divided into **four** classes:

- I. Personal Pronouns;
- II. Relative Pronouns;
- III. Interrogative Pronouns;
- IV. Indefinite Pronouns.

Special Remark.—The properties—that is, the gender, number, person, and case—of the pronouns are precisely the same as the properties of nouns, *except*—

1. The *person* of personal pronouns is marked by *distinct forms of the words*; as, *I*, first person; *thou*, second person; *he*, third person; etc.

2. In forming the *cases* of pronouns a distinct form of the words is used to indicate the objective; as, *he*, nominative case; *him*, objective case; etc.

14. Scheme of the Pronoun:

The Pronoun—divided into:	1. <i>Personal</i> :
	I, thou, he, we, etc.
	2. <i>Relative</i> :
	Who, which, what, that.
	3. <i>Interrogative</i> :
	Who? which? what?
	4. <i>Indefinite</i> :
	All, any, few, many, etc.

EXERCISES.

1. Write lists and Scheme of the Personal, Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns.
2. Write five sentences containing Personal Pronouns.
3. Write five sentences containing Relative Pronouns.
4. Write five sentences containing Interrogative Pronouns.
5. Write five sentences containing Indefinite Pronouns.

II. DECLENSION.

15. The Personal Pronouns are declined as follows:

FIRST PERSON.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
<i>Nom.</i>	I,	<i>Nom.</i>	We,
<i>Poss.</i>	My or mine,	<i>Poss.</i>	Our or ours,
<i>Obj.</i>	Me,	<i>Obj.</i>	Us,
<i>Ind.</i>	Me or I.	<i>Ind.</i>	We.

SECOND PERSON—UNUSUAL FORM.

<i>Nom.</i>	Thou,	<i>Nom.</i>	Ye,
<i>Poss.</i>	Thy or thine,	<i>Poss.</i>	Your or yours,
<i>Obj.</i>	Thee,	<i>Obj.</i>	You,
<i>Ind.</i>	Thou or thee.	<i>Ind.</i>	Ye.

THIRD PERSON—USUAL FORM.

<i>Nom.</i>	You,	<i>Nom.</i>	You,
<i>Poss.</i>	Your or yours,	<i>Poss.</i>	Your or yours,
<i>Obj.</i>	You,	<i>Obj.</i>	You,
<i>Ind.</i>	You.	<i>Ind.</i>	You.

THIRD PERSON.

	<i>Mas. Gen.</i>	<i>Fem. Gen.</i>	<i>No Gen.</i>	<i>All Genders.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	He,	She,	It,	They,
<i>Poss.</i>	His,	Her or hers,	Its,	Their or theirs,
<i>Obj.</i>	Him,	Her,	It,	Them,
<i>Ind.</i>	He or him.	She or her.	It.	They.

Remark 1.—The forms *thou* and *ye*, with their derived cases, are chiefly used by the Society of Friends and in elevated and solemn forms of speech, such as poetry and prayer.

Remark 2.—The possessive forms *mine*, *thine*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs* are used instead of *my*, *thy*, *her*, *our*, *your*, and *their*, when the names of the objects possessed are omitted.

EXAMPLES.—1. That road leads to your house; this one, to *mine* = my house.

2. Take the things that are *thine* = thy things.

3. His book and *hers* (= her book) are lying on the table.

4. We have our beliefs; the heathen have *theirs* = their beliefs.

Remark 3.—The personal pronoun *you* is always plural in form, though in sense it may be either singular or plural.

Remark 4.—It will be seen that in the formation of the possessive case of *pronouns* the apostrophe (') is omitted.

16. To certain forms of the personal pronouns the word *self* (plural *selves*) is sometimes added, forming what are called **Compound Personal Pronouns**.

EXAMPLES.—*Myself*, *thyself*, *himself*, *ourselves*, etc.

The laws for the formation of compound personals are:

1. In the first and second persons add *self* or *selves* to the possessive case of the simple pronouns.

EXAMPLES.—My + self = myself; thy + self = thyself; your + self = yourself; our + selves = ourselves; your + selves = yourselves.

2. In the third person add *self* or *selves* to the objective case of the simple pronouns.

EXAMPLES.—Him + self = himself; her + self = herself; it + self = itself; them + selves = themselves.

Remark 1.—All other combinations of *self* or *selves* with the personal pronouns, — such as *hisselt*, *itselt*, *theirselves*, etc., — are erroneous.

Remark 2.—The compound personal pronouns are generally

used *for emphasis*, and are joined to the simple forms of the words from which they are derived.

EXAMPLES.—I *myself*; he *himself*; they *themselves*; etc.

Remark 3.—Sometimes the compound personal pronouns are used *alone*.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Thyself* shalt see the wonders of the place.
2. *Myself* will do the deed.

Remark 4.—The compound personal pronouns are used only in the *nominative* and *objective cases*. In order to form a compound personal for the *possessive* case the word *own* is added after the simple forms of the personal pronouns possessive—thus: My *own*, thy *own*, his *own*, her *own*, our *own*, your *own*, their *own*. This combination is used for *emphasis* in nearly the same sense as *myself*, *thyself*, etc.

Remark 5.—The compound personals have no changes in form, except the distinction of *self* and *selves*, to distinguish the singular from the plural.

17. The Compound Personal Pronoun is declined as follows:

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Myself,	<i>Nom.</i>	Ourseives,
<i>Poss.</i>	My own,	<i>Poss.</i>	Our own,
<i>Obj.</i>	Myself,	<i>Obj.</i>	Ourselves,
<i>Ind.</i>	Myself.	<i>Ind.</i>	Ourselves.

18. The Relative Pronouns are declined as follows:

WHO—FIRST, SECOND, AND THIRD PERSONS.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Who,	<i>Nom.</i>	Who,
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose,	<i>Poss.</i>	Whose,
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom.	<i>Obj.</i>	Whom.
<i>Ind.</i>	—	<i>Ind.</i>	—

WHICH—THIRD PERSON.

SINGULAR.		PLURAL.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Which,	<i>Nom.</i>	Which,
<i>Poss.</i>	Of which,*	<i>Poss.</i>	Of which,
<i>Obj.</i>	Which.	<i>Obj.</i>	Which.
<i>Ind.</i>	——	<i>Ind.</i>	——

Remark 1.—The relatives *that* and *what* are indeclinable.

Remark 2.—The relative *who* always refers to *persons* or to *things personified*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The man *who* led our horses spoke French.
 2. The lady *whom* we saw at the bridge lives in Marietta.
 3. The general *whose* statue this is, died in 1816.
 4. The people *who* gathered around were eager to hear the young man's story.
 5. The fox *who* saw the trap said to his companion, etc.
 6. The worm *who* had been boasting to his companions fell into the brook.

Remark 3.—The relative *which* refers to irrational beings and to things without life.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The tunnel *which* we entered, was nearly a mile in length.
 2. This is the book *which* we are to study.
 3. The horse *which* I bought, has returned to his old master.

Remark 4.—In Old English *which* was used of persons as well as of things, but the usage is no longer sanctioned.

* Most grammarians insert *whose* as the possessive case of *which*; and for such a declension much good usage may be cited. Nevertheless, the very form of the word indicates that such usage is unwarranted by the laws of the language. *Whose* is derived from *who*, and can never truly express any other than a relation to *persons*. Whatever usage may seem to warrant, it is certainly desirable to purify our current English by rejecting all ungrammatical forms of speech. To say, "The tree *whose* branches have been broken off," is to speak bad English; but to speak of "a tree the branches *of which* have been broken off" is to use a form demanded alike by a pure grammar of English and by the laws of all the Teutonic languages.

Remark 5.—*Which* is properly used in reference to rational beings *when one of several persons* is to be distinguished.

- EXAMPLES.—1. I know not to *which* of the men he refers.
2. It is doubtful *which* of the ladies should have the prize.

Remark 6.—The relative *that* refers to both persons and things.

- EXAMPLES.—1. A book *that* lay on the table.
2. The crowds *that* came into the city.
3. The dog *that* lay in the manger.
4. The man *that* stood in the market.
5. The evil *that* men do lives after them.

Remark 7.—The relative *what* contains the antecedent *in itself*, and is equivalent to *that which* or *the thing which*.

- EXAMPLES.—1. I believe *what* (=the thing which) he says.
2. The lad was frightened at *what* (=that which) he saw.

Special Note.—The conjunction *as*, when it follows a noun preceded by *such*, may be parsed as a Relative Pronoun.

19. By adding *ever* or *soever* to the relatives *who*, *which*, and *what*, we form the **Compound Relatives** *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*.

Whoever and **whosoever** are declined thus:

SINGULAR AND PLURAL.

Nom. Whoever,
Poss. Whosoever,
Obj. Whomever.
Ind. —————

SINGULAR AND PLURAL.

Nom. Whosoever,
Poss. Whosessoever,
Obj. Whomsoever.
Ind. —————

Whichever, *whichsoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever* are indeclinable.

Remark.—The Old English relative *whoso* = *whoever*.

20. The Interrogative Pronouns are declined as follows:

WHO—MASCULINE AND FEMININE.

SINGULAR AND PLURAL.

<i>Nom.</i>	Who,
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose,
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom.
<i>Ind.</i>	——

Remark 1.—The interrogative *which* is declined as the relative *which*.

Remark 2.—The interrogative *what* is indeclinable.

Remark 3.—The interrogative *who* is used in reference to *persons only*; *which* and *what* are used of both *persons and things*.

Remark 4.—*Who* inquires *indefinitely*, and *which*, *definitely*, for the person or persons referred to.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Who* can escape from the influence of habit?
2. *Which* of the soldiers showed the greatest courage?

21. The Indefinite Pronouns are *irregular* in their grammatical forms.

1. **All** has a plural *form*, but sometimes a singular *sense*.

EXAMPLES.—*All* (*plural*) have hope. *All* (*singular*) is lost.

2. **Any** is singular in *form*, but sometimes plural in *sense*.

Remark.—*All* and *any* have no possessive form.

3. **Another** is singular in both form and meaning, and has a possessive form, *another's*.

4. **Certain**, **divers**, and **few** are plural in sense, and have no possessive.

5. The indefinites **it** and **they** are the same as the personals *it* and *they*, but are used in the nominative case *only*.

EXAMPLES.—*They* say that labor conquers all things.
snows in winter.

6. **Little** is used in the singular only; it has no possessive form.

7. **Many** is plural in both form and meaning; it has no possessive form.

8. **None** is singular in form (= no one), but generally plural in sense. It has no possessive form.

9. **One** is regularly declined, having its possessive *one's* and plural *ones*.

10. **Other** has a possessive *other's* and plural *others*.

11. **Some** is generally plural, though sometimes singular, in sense. It has no possessive form.

EXERCISES.

1. Write declensions of the Personal, Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns.

2. Write sentences illustrating the different Cases of the pronouns *I*, *he*, and *they*.

3. Write sentences illustrating the different Cases and Numbers of the Relative *who* and the Interrogative *who*.

III. PARSING.

22. The parsing of pronouns is very similar to that of nouns; but—

1. In parsing nouns the properties of gender, number, person, and case belong to *the nouns themselves*; while,

2. In parsing pronouns the properties of gender, number, and person *are derived from the nouns for which the pronouns stand*; and,

3. *The case only* of the pronoun is determined independently of the noun to which it refers.

ORDER OF PARSING THE PRONOUN.

23. The order of parsing a pronoun is :

1. A Pronoun, and why ;
2. Personal, Relative, Interrogative, or Indefinite, and why ;
3. Gender, Number, and Person, and why ;
4. Case, and why ;
5. A Rule of Syntax.

MODEL FOR PARSING PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

I. When the man entered, he said, "Good-morning."

He is a pronoun, because it stands for the noun "man;" personal, because it expresses grammatical person by the form of the word; of the masculine gender, singular number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent, "man;" and in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb "said," according to a rule of syntax which requires that the subject of a verb shall be in the nominative case.

II. The lady lost her fan at church.

Her is a pronoun, because it stands for the noun "lady;" personal, because it expresses grammatical person by the form of the word; of the feminine gender, singular number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent, "lady;" and in the possessive case, denoting the possessor, according to a rule of syntax which requires that a noun or pronoun denoting the possessor shall be in the possessive case.

III. You and I were there together.

You is a pronoun, because it stands for the person spoken to; personal, because it expresses grammatical person by the form of the word; of undetermined gender, singular (or plural) number, and second person, deriving its properties

from the person for whom the pronoun stands; and in the nominative case, being one of the subjects of the verb "were," according to a rule of syntax which requires that the subject of a verb shall be in the nominative case.

I is a pronoun, because it stands for the speaker; personal, denoting grammatical person by the form of the word; of undetermined gender, singular number, and first person, deriving its properties from the person for whom the pronoun stands; and in the nominative case, etc.

IV. When the passengers reached the boat the clerk met them and recorded their names.

Them is a pronoun, because it stands for the noun "passengers; personal, etc.; undetermined gender, plural number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent, "passengers;" and in the objective case, being the object of the action expressed by the verb "met," according to a rule of syntax which requires that the object of an action expressed by a verb shall be in the objective case.

Their is a pronoun, because it stands for the noun "passengers;" personal, etc.; undetermined gender, etc.; and in the possessive case, denoting the possessor, etc.

V. Your argument will be used against yourself.

Your is a pronoun, etc.; personal, etc.; undetermined gender, etc.; possessive case, denoting the possessor, etc.

Yourself is a pronoun, because it stands for the person spoken to; personal, etc.; compound, being formed by the addition of the word *self* to the simple pronoun *your*, and used for the sake of emphasis; of undetermined gender, etc.; and in the objective case, being the object of the relation expressed by the preposition "against," according to a rule of syntax which requires that a noun or pronoun which is the object of the relation expressed by a preposition shall be in the objective case.

MODEL FOR PARSING RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

I. The man who hopes for nothing, does nothing.

Who is a pronoun, because it stands for the noun "man;" relative, because it represents its antecedent by relation; of the masculine gender, singular number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent, "man;" and in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb "hopes," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

II. The girl whom we saw at school is at the gate.

Whom is a pronoun, etc.; relative, because it represents its antecedent by relation; of the feminine gender, etc.; and in the objective case, being the object of the action expressed by the verb "saw," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

III. The men whose farms lay side by side have quarreled.

Whose is a pronoun, etc.; relative, because it represents its antecedent by relation; of the masculine gender, plural number, and third person; and in the possessive case, denoting the possessor, etc.

IV. The trials which men endure make them strong.

Which is a pronoun, etc.; relative, because it represents its antecedent by relation; of no gender, plural number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent, "trials;" and in the objective case, being the object of the action expressed by the verb "endure," according to a rule, etc.

V. Fatal the tidings that came to us.

That is a pronoun, etc.; relative, etc.; of no gender, plural number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent, "tidings;" and in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb "came," etc.

VI. I believe what he says.

What is a pronoun, because it stands for some noun understood; relative, because it represents its antecedent by relation; compound, because it includes its own antecedent, being equivalent to *the thing which*.

Thing is a noun, because it is a name, etc.

Which is a pronoun, because it stands for the noun "thing;" relative, because it represents its antecedent by relation; of no gender, singular number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent, "thing;" and in the objective case, being the object of the verb "says," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

VII. Whoever wastes his time in youth will sorrow
in old age.

Whoever is a compound relative pronoun, equivalent to *the man who*, or *he who*.

Man is a noun, because it is a name, etc.; or,

He is a pronoun, etc.

Who is a pronoun, because it stands for the noun "man;" relative, because it represents its antecedent by relation; of the masculine gender, singular number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent "man," etc.

MODEL FOR PARSING INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

I. Who will solve this problem?

Who is a pronoun, because it represents some noun; interrogative, because it refers to its antecedent by inquiry; of undetermined gender, singular number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent; and in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb "will solve," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

II. Which is the road that leads to Springfield?

Which is a pronoun, because it represents a noun ; interrogative, because it refers to its antecedent by inquiry ; of no gender, singular number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent ; and in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb "is," according to a rule of syntax which requires that the subject of a sentence shall be in the nominative case.

III. What was the cause of this accident?

What is a pronoun, because it represents a noun ; interrogative, because it refers to its antecedent by inquiry ; of no gender, singular number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent ; and in the nominative case, being the subject of the verb "was," etc.

MODEL FOR PARSING INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

I. With malice toward none, with charity for all.

None is a pronoun, because it stands for a noun ; indefinite, because it refers to no particular antecedent ; of undetermined gender, plural number, and third person, deriving its properties from its antecedent ; and in the objective case, being the object of the relation expressed by the preposition "toward," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

All is a pronoun, etc. (Parsed in the same manner as "none.")

ABRIDGED MODEL FOR PARSING THE PRONOUN.

The boy went wherever he pleased.

He is a pronoun ; personal ; masculine gender, singular number, third person ; nominative case.

In like manner the parsing of all pronouns may be abridged.

EXERCISE IN PARSING.

Parse the Nouns and Pronouns in the following sentences:*

1. Charley is playing with his brothers.
2. Seven boys and girls are we.
3. The boatman called to us for help.
4. The hunter stooped down as he entered the cabin.
5. The man whistled and his dog came to him.
6. Leaves have their time to fall.
7. A politician who leads us astray is our enemy.
8. I was, as it were, a child of thee.
9. I had a dream which was not all a dream.
10. You that are noble born should pity him.
11. They also serve who only stand and wait.
12. I charge thee that thou attend to me.
13. The place to which we came was an open field.
14. The place that we came to was an open field.
15. I do not know whom to send.
16. Who is here so rude that would not be a Roman?
17. What is that dark object in the valley?
18. As we began to climb the mountain, it thundered.
19. It is fit this soldier should keep his oath.
20. No one to love me, none to caress.
21. As they stood face to face, each seemed the other.
22. All who enter on this scene must die.
23. It is a pretty saying of a wicked one.
24. Some went forward on the trail; others returned.
25. Breathes there a man with soul so dead,
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land?—*Scott*.
26. All nature is but art unknown to thee;
All chance, direction which thou canst not see;
All discord, harmony not understood;
All partial evil, universal good.—*Pope*.

*The Nouns, according to the *Abridged Model*.

CHAPTER V.

THE ADJECTIVE.

I. CLASSIFICATION.

1. **Principle.**—The meaning of a noun or pronoun may be described or defined by some other word.

2. Any word which is used *to describe* or *define the meaning* of a noun or pronoun, is an **Adjective**.

Remark 1.—Every word which in any way *varies the sense* of a noun or pronoun, will fall under this general term.

Remark 2.—The word *adjective* means *that which is added to*; that is, *added to the meaning of a noun*.

3. Arising from the definition, there are *two general classes* of adjectives:

1. Those which *describe* the meanings of nouns or pronouns,—called **Descriptive** or **Qualifying Adjectives**;

2. Those which *define* or *limit* the meanings of nouns or pronouns,—called **Definitive** or **Limiting Adjectives**.

Remark 1.—The Descriptive Adjective always fixes the thought upon some quality *expressed by the adjective itself*.

EXAMPLES.—A *sweet* apple; a *bitter* almond; a *tall* tree; a *terrible* storm.

Here the adjectives “sweet,” “bitter,” “tall,” and “terrible,” express certain qualities *upon which the mind rests*, and which it may consider independently of the nouns “apple,” “almond,” etc.

Remark 2.—The Definitive Adjective merely *carries the mind forward to the noun*, and does not itself express any idea upon which the thought may rest.

EXAMPLES.—*That* apple; *ten* pebbles; *every* student; *another* planet.

Here the adjectives “that,” “ten,” “every,” and “another,” do not themselves express any idea upon which the mind may rest. They simply *carry the thought to the noun*, and demand that the noun shall be considered in a certain *modified, restricted, or limited* sense.

SECTION I.—DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES.

4. Descriptive or Qualifying adjectives are divided into four classes: I. COMMON; II. PROPER; III. PARTICIPIAL; IV. COMPOUND.

I. COMMON ADJECTIVES.

To this class belong a large majority of the adjectives in the English language.

EXAMPLES.—A *green* field; a *good* farm; a *bad* enterprise; a *noble* deed; a *true* hero; a *broad* prairie; a *crimson* cloud.

Remark 1.—Many common nouns are used as adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—An *iron* ring; a *leather* bucket; a *silver* spoon; the *ice* season; a *country* dance; a *lake* schooner.

Remark 2.—The adjective is frequently used (especially in the *plural number*) without the noun which it describes.

EXAMPLES.—The *good* are prosperous; the *bad* are always in trouble; the *brave* are honored; etc.

Remark 3.—Common adjectives are derived from common (generally abstract) nouns.

EXAMPLES.—*True*, from *truth*; *manly*, from *man*; *red*, from *red*; *natural*, from *nature*; *foolish*, from *fool*; etc.

II. PROPER ADJECTIVES.

To this class belong all adjectives derived from proper nouns.

EXAMPLES.—A *French* proverb; an *African* forest; a *Roman* citizen; the *Egyptian* pyramids; a *Chinese* custom; a *Websterian* oration; the *Shakespearean* drama; etc.

Remark.—If the reference to the noun from which the adjective is derived *has been lost or forgotten*, then the adjective becomes *common*.

EXAMPLES.—A *herculean* undertaking; a *stentorian* voice; an *epicurean* taste; etc.

Here the word “herculean” is derived from *Hercules*; “stentorian,” from *Stentor*; and “epicurean,” from *Epicurus*; but the adjectives no longer refer particularly to the nouns from which they are derived.

III. PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES.

To this class belong all participles* used as adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—The *dying* swan; the *flowing* stream; the *muttering* storm; the *fading* sunset; the *moaning* ocean; an *unsettled* purpose; a *withered* leaf; a *scented* handkerchief; a *fallen* pillar; etc.

Remark.—Participial adjectives are distinguished from common adjectives only by their derivation from participles.

IV. COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

To this class belong such adjectives as are made up of *combinations of two or more single words joined together in sense*.

* For the meaning of “participles,” see page

EXAMPLES.—A *half-starved* wolf; a *side-splitting* joke; a *web-footed* bird; a *woe-begone* countenance; a *doubled-and-twisted* rope; a *never-to-be-forgotten* incident; etc.

EXERCISES.

1. Select paragraphs and point out the several kinds of Descriptive Adjectives.
2. Write a list of twenty Descriptive Adjectives.
3. Write five sentences containing Proper Adjectives.
4. Write sentences containing Participial and Compound Adjectives.

SECTION II.—DEFINITIVE ADJECTIVES.

5. Definitive or Limiting adjectives are divided into three classes: I. ARTICLES; II. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES; III. NUMERALS.

I. ARTICLES.

6. The word **THE** is placed before a noun to point out the object *definitely*, and is called **the Definite Article**.

EXAMPLES.—1. *The* tornado passed over *the* village.
 2. *The* workmen walked along *the* track to *the* bridge.
 3. *The* leaves were blown by *the* wind over *the* fence into *the* garden.

7. The word **AN** is placed before a noun to point out the object in a *general* or *indefinite manner*, and is called **the Indefinite Article**.

EXAMPLES.—1. *An* eager throng gathered in *an* open field.
 2. *An* apple fell into *an* upturned palm.
 3. *An* artist sketched *an* orchard and *an* old house.

Remark 1.—Other words (as adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions) may interpose between the Articles and the nouns to which they belong.

EXAMPLES.—*An* unusually bright *morning*; *an* open-hearted *friend*; *the* swiftest and broadest *river*; etc.

Remark 2.—When the article AN stands before a word beginning with *a consonant sound*, the *n* of the article is dropped, the article in that case being written A.

EXAMPLES.—1. *A* gleam of sunshine on *a* cloudy day.
2. *A* recollection of *a* time long past.
3. *A* maple standing by *a* brook in *a* pasture.

Remark 3.—It is the consonant *sound* and the vowel *sound* that determines whether the Indefinite Article shall be written *an* or *a*.

Remark 4.—If the following word begins with a vowel, but has an initial consonantal *sound*, the Indefinite Article is written *a*, and not *an*.

EXAMPLES.—*A* useful instrument; *a* Union of States; such *a* one; etc.

Here the words “useful” and “Union” begin with the sound of *y*,—a consonant; and the word “one” begins with the sound of *w*,—a consonant.

Remark 5.—If the following word begins with a consonant, but has an initial vowel *sound*, the Indefinite Article is written *an*.

EXAMPLES.—*An* honest man; *an* hour-glass;* etc.

* In the spoken language of England the letter *h* is very feeble. As a consequence most English writers, and certain American authors and grammarians following the English fashion, are in the habit of writing *an* before many words beginning with *h*, as though such words were begun with a vowel sound; as, *an* humble man; *an* humorous story; *an* hundred; *an* host; *an* history; *an* historical account; etc. This usage, based as it is either upon a false pronunciation or upon hair-splitting as to the position of the accent, is *erroneous*, and should be

Remark 6.—The Definite Article **THE** has the same root-meaning as the word *that*, both being derived from the Anglo-Saxon *thæt*.

Remark 7.—The Indefinite Article **AN** has the same root-meaning as the word *one*, both being derived from the Anglo-Saxon *æn*, meaning *one*.

EXERCISES.

1. Write three sentences containing the Definite Article.
2. Write three sentences containing the Indefinite Article.
3. Write sentences illustrating the uses of *an* and *a* before Vowel and Consonant sounds.

II. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

8. Many words which generally perform the office of pronouns are also used with nouns as *adjectives*, and when so used are called **Pronominal Adjectives**.

EXAMPLES.—1. *All* men think *all* men mortal but themselves.

2. *Both* troopers came galloping on.
3. *Each* soldier heard the signal.
4. *Few* men reach the goal of their ambition.

9. Pronominal adjectives are divided into four classes :
I. *Demonstratives*; II. *Distributives*; III. *Indefinites*;
IV. *Interrogatives and Relatives*.

universally condemned. The Indefinite Article before words beginning with *h*, should *always* be written *a*, except where the *h* is silent; as, *a* humble man; *a* hundred miles; *a* host; *a* humorous story; *a* historical account. The opposite usage tends to destroy the force and distinctness of our American *h* and to bring about those very forms of speech which have been so much ridiculed in England, such as 'andsome, for handsome; 'orse, for horse; 'undred, for hundred; 't 'im on 'is 'ead, for hit him on his head; etc.

I. Demonstratives.

10. Demonstratives point out *specifically* and *definitely* the objects to which they refer.

“Demonstrative” is derived from the Latin *demonstrare*, to point out, as with the index finger: *That* book = ~~the~~ book.

LIST OF DEMONSTRATIVES.*

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
This,	These.	———	Both.
That,	Those.	Same,	Same.
Former,	Former.	Yon,	Yon.
Latter,	Latter.	Yonder,	Yonder.

Remark 1.—*This* and *that* have as plurals *these* and *those*. No other adjectives have a similar variation in form to indicate the plural.

Remark 2.—The demonstrative *this* (plural *these*) points out an object as *present to the speaker*; present either in *time*, in *place*, or in *thought*.

EXAMPLES.—1. *This* hour has been long a-coming.

Here “hour” is present in *time*.

2. *This* hill is the place for the picnic.

Here “hill” is present in *place*.

3. *These* projects can never succeed.

Here “projects” are present in *thought*.

Remark 3.—The demonstrative *that* (plural *those*) points out an object as *remote from the speaker*; remote either in *time*, in *place*, or in *thought*.

* Those grammarians who regard the Demonstratives as *pronouns* rather than *adjectives*, generally give to this group of words the name of *Adjective* or *Demonstrative Pronouns*.

EXAMPLES.—1. *That* day will never come.

Here “day” is remote in *time*.

2. *That* spot so green among the distant hills.

Here “spot” is remote in *place*.

3. *Those* dreams have vanished forever.

Here “dreams” are remote in *thought*.

Note.—The use of the personal pronoun *them* instead of the demonstrative *those* (*them* books for *those* books) is a gross error.

Remark 4.—The demonstrative *former* points out an object first mentioned of two. *Latter* and *former* are always used of things placed in contrast.

Remark 5.—The demonstrative *latter* points out an object last mentioned of two.

EXAMPLES.—1. The hunter and the trapper went into the woods together. The *former* returned with his game, but the *latter* was never heard of afterwards.

2. Washington and Adams were the first two Presidents. The *former* was a military leader; the *latter*, a civilian.

Remark 6.—*Both* signifies two objects *taken together*.

EXAMPLES.—Henry and Tom *both* ran to the play-ground. *Both* city and country poured out their treasures.

Remark 7.—The demonstrative *same* signifies the identity of some object with some other object previously known or mentioned.

EXAMPLE.—This is the *same* man whom we met in the village.

Remark 8.—The demonstratives *yon* and *yonder* point out objects seen at a distance.

EXAMPLES.—How slow *yon* tiny vessel plows the main. *Yonder* fleecy clouds and blue sky remind us of Italy.

II. Distributives.

11. Distributives are used to point out objects *taken separately*. The distributives are **each**, **every**, **either**, and **neither**.

Remark 1.—The distributive *each* points out *one* of any number of objects *as considered by itself*.

EXAMPLES.—*Each* of the boys was intent on his own project. Let *each* of the soldiers salute with his right hand.

Remark 2.—The distributive *every* points out *all* of a group of objects *considered separately*.

EXAMPLES.—*Every* man in the assembly rose to his feet. *Every* flower in the bed has its own fragrance.

Remark 3.—The distributive *either* points out *one of two* objects.

EXAMPLES.—*Either* of the (two) pens will answer. *Either* of the (two) boys may go; etc.

Remark 4.—The distributive *neither* is the negative of *either*; that is, *neither* = *not either*.

EXAMPLES.—*Neither* (= *not either*) of the apples is perfect. *Neither* (= *not either*) of the hats will fit.

III. Indefinites.

12. Many of the Indefinite Pronouns* are used with nouns as *adjectives*, and when so used are called **Indefinite Pronominal Adjectives**.

Remark 1.—The indefinite *all* is applied to a number of objects *taken as a whole*.

EXAMPLES.—*All* men struggle to be foremost. *All* prospects fail, *all* visions fade away.

* See list, page 81.

Remark 2.—When the definite article *THE* is inserted between *all* and the noun to which it belongs, some grammarians parse *all* as *an indefinite pronoun*, and the noun as the object of the preposition *of* understood.

EXAMPLE.—*All* the sailors were anxious to leave the port = *all of* the sailors, etc.

Remark 3.—The indefinite *any* is applied to *one of several objects* or to *some of a quantity*.

EXAMPLES.—Tell the story to *any* man you meet. Is there *any* butter in the market?

Remark 4.—The indefinite *certain* points out *one selected from a number of objects*, or *a number selected from a greater number*.

EXAMPLES.—A *certain* fox was caught in a trap. Eclipses happen in *certain* months this year.

Remark 5.—The indefinites *few*, *many*, and *some* denote respectively *a small number*, *a large number*, *an indefinite number* of the things referred to.

Remark 6.—The indefinites *little*, *much*, and *some* denote respectively *a small quantity*, *a large quantity*, *an indefinite quantity* of the thing referred to.

Remark 7.—The indefinite *other* points out an object *not the same* as one already referred to.

EXAMPLES.—The *other* robber escaped. The *other* road led to Springfield.

Remark 8.—*Another* = *an other*.

IV. Interrogatives and Relatives.

13. The Interrogative Pronouns *which* and *what* and the Relatives *which* and *what* are frequently used as limiting adjectives.

- EXAMPLES. — 1. *Which* offer will you accept?
 2. *What* hope has he of evading the law?
 3. I know *which* offer you will accept.
 4. I know *what* plan he will adopt.

EXERCISES.

1. Write a list of Demonstrative Pronominal Adjectives.
2. Write sentences illustrating the uses of *This* and *That*.
3. Write sentences illustrating the uses of *Latter* and *Former*.
4. Write five sentences containing Distributive Pronominal Adjectives.
5. Write five sentences containing Indefinite Pronominal Adjectives.
6. Write five sentences containing Interrogative and Relative Pronominal Adjectives.

III. NUMERALS.

14. Adjectives which express number or order definitely are called **Numeral Adjectives**.

EXAMPLES. — *Two* streets; *ten* States; *forty* volumes; *seven hundred and forty-six* dollars. The *second* class; the *fifth* rule; the *Fortieth* Congress; the *thousandth* year; etc.

15. Numerals are divided into three classes: I. *Cardinals*; II. *Ordinals*; III. *Multiplicatives*.

I. Cardinals.

16. Cardinals express definitely *the number of objects considered*.

EXAMPLES. — *Three* lessons; *twenty* rods; *seventy-five* acres.

Remark. — The cardinals from *one* to *ninety-nine* are simple definitive adjectives; but *hundred*, *thousand*, *million*, etc., may

be preceded by the indefinite article *A*, and in that case they may be regarded as nouns.

EXAMPLES.—A *hundred* men = a hundred of men; a *thousand* miles = a thousand of miles. The true nature of *hundred*, *thousand*, etc., is also shown by their admitting a plural, *hundreds*, *thousands*, etc.

II. Ordinals.

17. Ordinals denote *in what order* the thing considered stands in a series.

EXAMPLES.—The *first* day of the week; the *second* prize; the *fourth* game of chess; the *thirtieth* State of the Union.

Remark.—The ordinals, except *first* and *second*, are formed from the cardinals—thus: *third* (Old English *thride*) from *three*; *fourth* from *four*; *fifth* from *five*; etc. *First* (Anglo-Saxon *fyrest*) = *foremost*; *second* (Latin *secundus*) = *following*.

III. Multiplicatives.

18. Multiplicatives denote *how many fold* the object is.

EXAMPLES.—A *twofold* nature; *twofold* leaves; a *threefold* cord; a *fourfold* division; etc.

Remark 1.—The multiplicatives are formed by simply adding *fold* to any cardinal numeral.

Remark 2.—The multiplicatives *twofold*, *fourfold*, *sixfold*, etc., are to be carefully distinguished from the numeral adverbs *twice*, *thrice*, *four times*, etc.

EXERCISES.

1. Write a Scheme of Numeral Adjectives.
2. Write three sentences containing Cardinals.
3. Write three sentences containing Ordinals.
4. Write three sentences containing Multiplicatives.

19. General Scheme of the Adjective:

I. DESCRIPTIVE—

Divided into:

1. *Common*; as, great, true, peaceful.
2. *Proper*; as, British, Miltonian, Japanese.
3. *Participial*; as, flying, tossing, broken.

The Adjective—

Divided into:

1. *Articles*: AN (A), THE.1. *Demonstrative*; as, this, that, yon.2. *Pronominal*: 2. *Distributive*; as, each, every, either.3. *Indefinite*; as, some, other, any.

II. DEFINITIVE—

Divided into:

1. *Cardinal*; as, one, ten, thousand.2. *Ordinal*; as, first, tenth, thousandth.3. *Multiplicative*; as, twofold, tenfold.

II. COMPARISON.

20. Descriptive or qualifying adjectives undergo certain changes in form *to express degrees of comparison*.

21. There are three degrees of comparison: I. THE POSITIVE DEGREE; II. THE COMPARATIVE DEGREE; III. THE SUPERLATIVE DEGREE.

22. The Positive Degree of an adjective denotes *the simple or absolute quality* expressed by the word; and the *form* of the adjective used to express this degree is *the adjective itself*.

EXAMPLES.—A *red* apple; a *long* journey; a *rainy* day; an *impenetrable* forest.

Here the adjectives express the simple or absolute qualities denoted by the words “red,” “long,” “rainy,” “impenetrable;” and the *forms* of the words are the same as those found in the dictionary.

23. The Comparative Degree of an adjective denotes *a higher or lower degree* of the quality than that expressed by the positive degree.

EXAMPLES.—A *clearer* view; a *longer* journey; a *calmer* frame of mind; a *more wonderful* occurrence; a *less hopeful* prospect; etc.

24. The Superlative Degree of an adjective expresses *the highest or lowest degree* of the quality denoted by the positive.

EXAMPLES.—The *widest* prairie; the *greatest* courage; the *noblest* purpose; the *most exalted* patriotism; the *least objectionable* measure; etc.

METHODS OF FORMING THE COMPARATIVE.

25. The comparative degree is formed in one of **three** ways:

1. By adding **r** or **er** to the positive—thus: *tall*, tall-*er*; *near*, near-*er*; *black*, black-*er*; *bold*, bold-*er*; *large*, large-*r*; *fine*, fine-*r*; *pure*, pure-*r*; etc.

Remark 1.—Nearly all *monosyllabic* adjectives form their comparatives in the manner just given.

Remark 2.—If the monosyllabic adjective ends in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, the final consonant is *repeated* before the ending—thus: *thin*, thin-*ner*; *wet*, wet-*ter*; *mad*, mad-*der*; *slim*, slim-*mer*; etc.

Remark 3.—If the adjective ends in *y*, the *y* is generally changed into *i* before *er*, in forming the comparative—thus: *dry*, dri-*er*; *happy*, happi-*er*; *silly*, silli-*er*; etc.

2. By placing the word **more** before the positive degree—thus: *content*, *more* content; *faithful*, *more* faithful; *prudent*, *more* prudent; *disconsolate*, *more* disconsolate; *interesting*, *more* interesting; etc.

Remark 1.—All *polysyllables* (except dissyllables ending in *y*, *le*, *ow*, or *er*) form their comparatives in the manner just given.

Remark 2.—Dissyllables ending in *y*, *le*, *ow*, or *er*, generally form their comparatives according to the first method—thus: *easy*, easi-*er*; *funny*, funni-*er*; *able*, able-*r*; *shallow*, shallow-*er*; *tender*, tender-*er*; etc.

Remark 3.—Monosyllabic adjectives sometimes form their comparatives according to the second method—thus: *apt*, *more* apt; *fit*, *more* fit; *near*, *more* near; etc.

3. By placing the word **less** before the positive degree—thus: *humble*, *less* humble; *roomy*, *less* roomy; *worthy*, *less* worthy; *honorable*, *less* honorable; etc.

METHODS OF FORMING THE SUPERLATIVE.

26. The formation of the superlative degree is analogous to that of the comparative; that is,—

1. By the addition of **st** or **est** to the positive—thus: *calm*, *calm-est*; *strong*, *strong-est*; *high*, *high-est*; *pale*, *pale-st*; *fine*, *fine-st*; *tame*, *tame-st*; *red*, *red-dest*; *thin*, *thin-nest*; *easy*, *easi-est*; *happy*, *happi-est*; *shallow*, *shallow-est*; etc.

2. By placing **most** before the positive degree—thus: *noble*, *most noble*; *disgraceful*, *most disgraceful*; *terrible*, *most terrible*; *fanatical*, *most fanatical*; etc.

3. By placing **least** before the positive degree—thus: *hurtful*, *least hurtful*; *promising*, *least promising*; *transparent*, *least transparent*; etc.

Remark 1.—The method of comparing adjectives by means of *er* and *est*, and the method by means of *more* and *most*, differ from each other in *form* only, and not in *sense*.

Remark 2.—That form of comparison which is effected by adding *r*, *er*, *st*, and *est*, or by prefixing *more* and *most*, to the positive degree, is called **Ascending Comparison**.

Remark 3.—That form of comparison which is effected by prefixing *less* and *least* to the positive degree is called **Descending Comparison**.

EXERCISES.

1. Illustrate Ascending Comparison with five examples.
2. Illustrate Descending Comparison with five examples.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON.

27. Many common adjectives form their comparative and superlative degrees in an *irregular manner*. The following is a list of such adjectives:

TABLE OF IRREGUAR COMPARISON.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
Good, }	Better,	Best.
Well, }		
Bad, }	Worse;	Worst.
Evil, }		
Ill, }	More,	Most.
Many, }		
Much, }	{ Less, Lesser,	Least.
Little,		
Far,	Farther,	Farthest.
[Forth,]	Further,	Furthest.
Hind,	Hinder,	Hindmost.
Late,	{ Later,	Latest,
	{ Latter,	Last.
Near,	Nearer,	{ Nearest,
		{ Next.
Nigh,	Nigher,	{ Nighest,
		{ Next.
Neath,	Nether,	Nethermost.
Old,	{ Older,	Oldest,
	{ Elder,	Eldest.
Out,	{ Outer,	{ Outmost,
	{ Utter,	{ Utmmost,
		{ Uttermmost.
Up,	Upper,	Upmost.

Remark 1.—The comparative *better* and the superlative *best*, when derived from *good*, refer to *the qualities of things*; *better* and *best*, derived from *well*, refer to *the relations of things*, or to *health*. Etymologically, *better* and *best* are derived from the Anglo-Saxon *bét*, meaning *good*.

Remark 2.—*Worse* and *worst* (comparative and superlative of *bad*) are derived from the Anglo-Saxon *weór*, meaning *evil*.

Remark 3.—*Farther* and *farthest* are used to denote the relative *distances* of the objects to which they are applied;

as, Milwaukee is *farther* north than Chicago; the *farthest* borders of the prairie, etc. *Further* and *furthest* are used of *ideal* considerations; as, the *further* discussion of the subject; the *furthest* stretch of the imagination; etc.

Remark 4.—*Latter* and *last* are used in opposition to *former* and *first*; *later* and *latest* are said of things in respect to *time*.

Remark 5.—The comparative *elder* and the superlative *eldest* are used of *men* and *women*; *older* and *oldest*, of *things*.

28. Certain descriptive adjectives *do not admit of comparison*. These are:

1. Such as have no degrees in meaning.

EXAMPLES.—*Round, square, oblong, triangular, perpendicular, spherical, dead, asleep, etc.*

2. Such as have a positive form but a superlative meaning.

EXAMPLES.—*All-wise, infinite, supreme, endless, everlasting, perfect, universal, omnipresent, etc.*

29. Certain adjectives, derived from Latin, are used only in the comparative degree.

EXAMPLES.—*Anterior, inferior, superior, junior, senior, posterior, prior, preferable, etc.*

Remark.—In *construction* these comparatives are followed by *to* instead of *than*.

EXERCISES.

1. Write ten Adjectives with Comparison by First Method.
2. Write five Adjectives with Comparison by Second Method.
3. Write five Adjectives with Comparison by Third Method.
4. Write ten Adjectives with Irregular Comparison.
5. Write three sentences containing Adjectives that do not admit of Comparison.

III. PARSING.

ORDER OF PARSING THE ADJECTIVE.

30. The order of parsing an adjective is:

1. An Adjective, and why;
2. Descriptive or Definitive, and why; *and if Descriptive,*
3. Degree of Comparison, and why;
4. Comparison.
5. Descriptive or Definitive of what noun; and,
6. A Rule of Syntax.

MODEL FOR PARSING THE ADJECTIVE.

I. Honest men love labor.

Honest is an adjective, being joined to a noun to modify its meaning; descriptive, because it describes the noun to which it belongs; in the positive degree, denoting the quality in a simple or absolute manner: positive *honest*, comparative *more honest*, superlative *most honest*; describing the noun "men," according to a rule of syntax which requires that an adjective shall describe or define some noun or pronoun.

II. On that street we met ten men.

That is an adjective, being joined to a noun to modify its meaning; definitive, because it designates or defines the noun to which it belongs; pronominal, having the form of a pronoun; without comparison; limiting the noun "street," according to a rule of syntax which requires that an adjective shall describe or limit some noun or pronoun.

Ten is an adjective, being joined to a noun to modify its meaning; definitive, because it limits the noun to which it belongs; numeral, designating number; without comparison; defining the meaning of the noun "men," according to a

rule of syntax which requires that an adjective shall describe or define some noun or pronoun.

III. The object of grammar is twofold.

The is an adjective, being joined to a noun to modify its meaning; definitive, because it limits the noun to which it belongs; the Definite Article, pointing out a specific object; without comparison; limiting the meaning of the noun "object," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

Twofold is an adjective, being joined to a noun to modify its meaning; definitive, because it limits the noun to which it belongs; a multiplicative numeral, denoting how many fold the thing is; without comparison; limiting the meaning of the noun "object," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

IV. The Mississippi is the grandest river of the West.

Grandest is an adjective, being joined to a noun to modify its meaning; descriptive, because it describes the noun to which it belongs; in the superlative degree, denoting the quality in the highest sense: positive *grand*, comparative *grandier*, superlative *grandest*; describing the noun "river," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

V. Clay was a better orator than Calhoun.

Better is an adjective, being joined to a noun to modify its meaning; descriptive, because it describes the noun to which it belongs; in the comparative degree, denoting the quality in a relative sense; irregular; positive *good*, comparative *better*, superlative *best*; describing the noun "orator," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

VI. The roaring storm swept through the shattered forest.

Roaring is an adjective, being joined to a noun to modify its meaning; descriptive, because it describes the noun to which it belongs; participial, being a form of the verb

roar; in the positive degree; but without comparison;* describing the noun "storm," etc.

Shattered is an adjective, being joined to a noun to modify its meaning; descriptive, etc.; participial, being a form of the verb *shatter*; in the positive degree, but without comparison; describing the noun "forest," etc.

VII. Tom is a less successful student than Charley.

Less successful is an adjective, etc.; in the comparative degree, denoting the quality in a relative sense: positive *successful*, comparative *less successful*, superlative *least successful*, etc.

VIII. Some men aspire to greatness; other men, to folly.

Some is an adjective, being joined to a noun to modify its meaning; definitive, because it limits the noun to which it belongs; pronominal, having the form of a pronoun; indefinite, pointing out an object in a general manner; without comparison; limiting the meaning of the noun "men," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

Other is an adjective, etc. (Parsed like "some.")

ABRIDGED MODEL FOR PARSING THE ADJECTIVE.

I. The balmy spring brings back the flowers.

Balmy is an adjective; descriptive; in the positive degree; describing the noun "spring."

II. Those trees were once but tender shoots.

Those is an adjective; definitive; pronominal; without comparison; limiting the noun "trees."

Tender is an adjective; descriptive; in the positive degree; describing the noun "shoots."

* Generally, the participial adjectives *do not admit of comparison*. Sometimes, however, a comparison of participials with *more* and *most* is permissible.

EXERCISE IN PARSING.

Parse all the Nouns, Pronouns, and Adjectives in the following exercises:*

1. The silent moon ascends the starry sky.
2. The merry birds at early dawn awake.
3. The weary traveler seeks a quiet rest.
4. The echoing hills gave back the bugle's note.
5. How many unkept promises and broken vows there are!
6. Ancient history is, for the greater part, a story filled with wildest fables and legends most incredible.

7. I turned again to the vision which I had been so long contemplating; but instead of the rolling tide, the arched bridge, and the happy islands, I saw nothing but the long, low valley of Bagdad. — *Addison*.

8. The hopeful mind and faithful heart
Shall win and keep the better part.
9. That cottage home upon yon sloping hill,
With wicket gate and humble door, I see.

10. These days at school will pass,
And other days, with weighty cares, will come,
And many trials for us all, alas!
And grief for some.

11. The sun that brief December day
Rose cheerless over hills of gray,
And, darkly circled, gave at noon
A sadder light than waning moon. — *Whittier*.

12. Now came still evening on, and twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad. — *Milton*.

13. Some village Hampden that, with dauntless breast,
The little tyrant of his fields withstood;
Some mute, inglorious Milton here may rest,
Some Cromwell, guiltless of his country's blood. — *Gray*.

* Nouns and Pronouns according to the *Abridged Model*.

CHAPTER VI.

THE VERB.

I. CLASSIFICATION.

1. **Principle.**—Action or being may be predicated* of any subject of thought.

2. Any word which predicates action or being of a subject of thought is a **Verb**.

1. All verbs which predicate *action* of a subject are called **Active Verbs**.

2. That verb which predicates *being* of any subject is called the **Substantive Verb**.

3. An examination of *active* verbs will show—

1. That the action expressed by the verb sometimes *terminates in an object*. Verbs of this kind are called **Transitive Verbs**.

2. That the action expressed by the verb sometimes *terminates* (that is, *ceases*) *with the subject of the verb*. Verbs of this kind are called **Intransitive Verbs**.

Remark 1.—Many verbs belong alike to *both classes*; that is, they are sometimes *transitive*, and sometimes *intransitive*; as,—

1. { He *ran* as fast as he could (verb intrans.);
 { He *ran* a thorn into his thumb (verb trans.).
2. { The waves *break* into foam (verb intrans.);
 { The waves *break* the ships to pieces (verb trans.).

* To predicate means to affirm or deny.

3. { The lady *read* aloud to the company (verb intrans.);
 { The lady *read* the poem to the company (verb trans.).

Remark 2.—An intransitive verb may become transitive by placing after it an object of *like meaning* with itself.

EXAMPLES.—1. He *dreamed* a *dream* that night.

2. He *thought* brave *thoughts* as he sat alone.

3. He *ran* a *race* and won it.

4. He *smiled* a melancholy *smile*.

5. The hero *lives* a *life* heroic.

Remark 3.—The object of a transitive verb is always a *noun* or some word *used as a noun*.

4. Transitive verbs differ from intransitive verbs in respect to *the completeness of the thought* which they express.

I. Transitive verbs express *incomplete thoughts*, and require an *object* to develop the sense.

EXAMPLES.—1. Henry *shot*—— Shot *what*? Henry shot a *squirrel*.

2. The boys *frightened*—— Frightened *what*? The boys frightened *the horses*.

3. The student *wrote*—— Wrote *what*? The student wrote an *essay*.

Here the nouns “squirrel,” “horses,” and “essay,” are the objects of the verbs “shot,” “frightened,” and “broke,” and are necessary to complete the meaning of the sentences.

II. Most intransitive verbs are *complete in sense*, requiring no object to develop the meaning.

EXAMPLES.—1. The sea *roars*, and the thunder *rumbles*.

2. The gypsies *encamped* here.

3. The sun *set*, and the moon *rose* in the east.

Here the verbs “roars,” “rumbles,” “encamped,” “set,” and “rose,” express *complete thoughts*, and nothing is required to develop the meaning of the sentences.

III. Many intransitive verbs require a *complement* (not an *object*) to complete the meaning of sentences.

EXAMPLES.—1. The flowers *appear*— *Appear what or how?* The flowers *appear beautiful*.

2. The boy *became*— *Became what?* The boy *became a man*.

3. The violets *look meek* and *smell sweet*.

Here the adjectives “beautiful,” “meek,” and “sweet,” and the noun “man,” are the complements of the intransitive verbs.

EXERCISES.

I. Classify the Verbs in the following sentences :

1. He runs. 2. The stars shine. 3. The mason builds a wall. 4. The lark sings. 5. The trees wave their branches. 6. The man lost his way. 7. The boy is here. 8. The deer took the alarm and fled.

II. 1. Write and classify twenty Active Verbs.

2. Write ten sentences containing Transitive Verbs.

3. Write ten sentences containing Intransitive Verbs.

4. Write three sentences requiring Complements.

5. Active verbs differ very greatly in *the intensity of the action* expressed by them.

1. Some verbs express *intense* activity; as, *to run, to fly, to strike, to beat, to sob, to struggle*, etc.

2. Other verbs express *moderate* activity; as, *to give, to receive, to show, to ask, to think, to see, to hold, to calculate*, etc.

3. Other verbs express *feeble* activity; as, *to sit, to stand, to dream, to sleep, to appear, to seem, to become, to exist*,* etc.

*From the very feeble activity denoted by such verbs as *to become, to exist*, etc., some grammarians have represented them as expressing *a state or condition*. But they clearly denote *action*, and are therefore active verbs. No verb can express *a state* except the verb *to be*.

6. A few verbs are associated with other verbs *to assist in conjugation*, and are called **Auxiliary Verbs**.*

EXAMPLES.—1. The speaker *will* arrive this afternoon.

2. The May-month's blossoms *have* faded.

3. The essay *must* fill two pages.

4. The work *should have been* done by noonday.

In these examples the verbs "will," "have," "must," and "should have been," are used as auxiliaries of the principal verbs "arrive," "faded," "fill," and "done."

Remark 1.—Some of the auxiliary verbs have *no other office* than that of auxiliaries. These are:

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.
May,	Might.	Shall,	Should.
Can,	Could.	Must,	————

Remark 2.—The verbs *to will, to have, to do, to be*, and *to let*, with their derived forms, are sometimes used as principal verbs and sometimes as auxiliaries.

7. There is but one substantive verb; namely, the verb TO BE.

Remark.—The uses of the substantive verb are so many and various as to constitute it a class by itself.

8. The substantive verb is used—I. As a **Copula**;
II. As an **Auxiliary**; III. As a **Principal Verb**.

1. As a copula, the substantive verb *asserts something of some other thing*.

2. As an auxiliary, it *aids in forming the voice of verbs or the tenses of some verb to which it is joined*.

3. As a principal verb, it *expresses independent existence*.

*For the meaning of "conjugation," see page 134.

EXAMPLES OF THE VERB "TO BE" AS A COPULA.

1. Thomas *is* a student.
2. Good men *are* generally brave.
3. Magellan *was* a bold navigator.
4. Few orators *have been* the equals of Cicero.

In the first sentence the student-character is attributed to "Thomas" by the copula *is*; in the second sentence the quality of bravery is attributed to "good men" by the copula *are*, etc.

EXAMPLES OF THE AUXILIARY "TO BE."

1. The lesson *is* studied by the boys.
2. The beggar *is* asking for bread.
3. The seat *was* taken by a stranger.
4. The forest *has been* destroyed by a tornado.

Here the verbs "is," "was," and "has been," are auxiliaries of the verbs "studied," "asking," "taken," and "destroyed."

EXAMPLES OF THE VERB "TO BE," INDEPENDENT.

1. Troy *was*, but *is* no more.
2. Time *shall be* no longer.
3. Whatever *is*, is right.

Here the verbs "was," "is," "shall be," and "is" (first "is" in third example) are *principal verbs*.

Remark.—The above classification of verbs is determined by their *uses*.

EXERCISES.

1. Write five sentences containing Auxiliary Verbs.
2. Write three sentences containing the Copula Verb.
3. Write three sentences containing the Substantive Verb as an Auxiliary.
4. Write three sentences containing the Substantive Verb as a Principal Verb.

9. Verbs may also be classified according to *form*:

1. Sometimes verbs form their past tenses and past participles by adding *d* or *ed* to the present tense;* as,—

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
I love,	I loved,	Loved.
I walk,	I walked,	Walked.
I believe,	I believed,	Believed.

Verbs of this kind are called **Regular Verbs**.

2. Many verbs form their past tenses and past participles by some change (generally a *vowel* change) in the form of the present tense; as,—

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
I write,	I wrote,	Written.
I run,	I ran,	Run.
I think,	I thought,	Thought.
I am,	I was,†	Been.

Verbs of this kind are called **Irregular Verbs**.

Remark.—Some verbs have both the regular and the irregular form; as,—

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
{ I dream,	I dreamed,	Dreamed; or,
{ I dream,	I dreamt,	Dreamt.
{ I build,	I builded,	Builded; or,
{ I build,	I built,	Built.
{ I wake,	I waked,	Waked; or,
{ I wake,	I woke,	Woke.

10. A few verbs can have subjects only in the *third person, singular number*.

* For the meaning of "present tense" and "past tense," see page 132.

† "Was" and "been" are *distinct words*, not derived from "am."

EXAMPLES.—1. It *rained* for three months.

2. It *cleared off* next morning.

3. It *blew* and *stormed* incessantly.

4. It *behooves* us to be frugal.

Verbs of this kind are called **Unipersonal** or **Impersonal Verbs**.

II. PROPERTIES.

I. VOICE.

11. Principle 1.—The action expressed by an active verb may be either *exerted* or *received* by the subject.

12. That modification of an active verb which denotes whether *the action is exerted* or *received* by the subject is called **Voice**.

I. That form of the verb which shows that the action is *exerted by the subject* is called **the Active Voice**.

EXAMPLES.—1. The man *went* to the city.

2. The river *flows* through the valley.

3. The engineer *rang* the bell, and the train *started*.

Here the verbs “went,” “flows,” “rang,” and “started,” are of such form as to denote that the actions expressed by them are *exerted by their subjects*.

II. That form of the verb which denotes that the action is *received by the subject* is called **the Passive Voice**.

EXAMPLES.—1. The boy *was injured* by the fall.

2. The bridge *has been destroyed* by the flood.

3. The best men *should be chosen* for office.

Here the verbs “was injured,” “has been destroyed,” and “should be chosen,” are of such form as to denote that the actions expressed by them are *received by their subjects*.

Remark 1.—In a few cases the actions expressed by verbs are both *exerted* AND *received by their subjects*. Such verbs are followed by the reflexive personal pronouns (himself, herself, itself, etc.), and are called **Reflexive Verbs**.

EXAMPLES.—1. The hunter *shot himself* by accident.

2. The girl *hid herself* behind the rose-bush.

Remark 2.—Voice properly belongs to active transitive verbs *only*. *Intransitive* verbs have no forms for the passive voice.

Remark 3.—A few intransitive verbs have a passive form with *an active meaning*.

EXAMPLES.—1. The time for action *is come* = *has come*.

2. Before the moon *is risen* (= *has risen*) we must start.

EXERCISES.

1. State the Voice of the verbs in Exercises on page 76.
2. Write five sentences containing verbs in the Active Voice.
3. Write five sentences containing verbs in the Passive Voice.

II. MODE.

13. Principle 2.—The form of a verb may indicate *the manner of the action* expressed by it.

14. That modification of a verb which denotes *the manner of the action* expressed by it is called **Mode**.

The first manner in which action or being may be expressed by a verb is that of *simple declaration*.

15. That form of a verb which simply *declares* an action or state of being, is called **the Indicative Mode**.

EXAMPLES.—1. Spring *brings* us her wealth of flowers.

2. The letter *was lost* from the mail.

Here “brings” and “was lost” are in the indicative mode.

Remark 1.—Direct questions, though not in the declarative *form*, are generally in the indicative mode.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Has* the boy *returned* from school?

2. *Did* he *win* the prize fairly?

Here the verbs “has returned” and “did win” are in the indicative mode.

Remark 2.—The verbs used in exclamatory sentences are generally in the indicative mode.

EXAMPLES.—1. How vainly *strove* the swimmer!

2. What massive walls the builders *built* in Rome!

Here the verbs “strove” and “built” are in the indicative mode.

16. That form of a verb which expresses an action or state of being, not as a fact, but as *conceived by the mind*, is called the **Subjunctive Mode**.

EXAMPLES.—1. *If the clouds rained wool*, broadcloth would be plentiful.

2. *If I had time*, I would answer his letter.

3. *Were he an honest man*, he would keep his word.

In these examples the verbs in the italicized clauses express actions or states of being merely as *conceived by the mind*—not as *facts*. All such verbs are in the subjunctive mode.

Remark 1.—The word “subjunctive” means *joined to* in a subordinate sense.

Remark 2.—The subjunctive mode is introduced by the following conjunctions: **if, though, except, unless, lest, and that.**

Remark 3.—Sometimes the conjunction *is omitted*, and in that case the parts of the verb are transposed—thus: Had I known it = If I had known it; Were he present = If he were present; etc.

Remark 4.—The general purpose of the subjunctive mode is to express *supposition, doubt, or contingency*.

Remark 5.—The subjunctive mode has, *in some of the tenses*, certain forms of its own; in the other tenses the forms of the indicative are used, preceded by *if*, *unless*, etc.

EXAMPLES:

Present Tense . . { 1. If he *do* not *go* (subjunctive form);
 2. If he *does* not *go* (indicative form).
Past Tense If he *did* not *go* (indic. and subj. form).
Future Tense If he *will* not *go* (indic. and subj. form).

Remark 6.—When the indicative form of the verb is used to express supposition or doubt, the condition implied is conceived of as *true*; when the subjunctive form is used the condition is conceived of as *contingent*.

EXAMPLES.—1. If the statement *was denied* (and it was), why was not the proof presented?

2. If the statement *be denied* (an undetermined matter), we will furnish proof.

In the first example the condition is supposed to be *true*; in the latter, *undetermined* or *contingent*.

17. That form of the verb which expresses *power*, *purpose*, *will*, *necessity*, *duty*, *obligation*, etc., is called the **Potential Mode**.*

EXAMPLES.—1. Men *may* yet *reach* the North Pole.

2. The sunlight *should be admitted*.

3. The Union *must be preserved*.

Here the verbs “*may reach*,” “*should be admitted*,” and “*must be preserved*,” are in the potential mode.

* Properly speaking, the potential mode is *not a mode*, but only a convenient form of expression to denote certain clusters of auxiliaries, infinitives, and participles, which are thrown together according to the idioms of the English language. Under a strict analysis the expression “I might have chosen otherwise” comes apart into (1) a principal verb—*I might*; (2) an infinitive—*to have* (“to” omitted); and (3) a perfect participle objective—*chosen*. The tendencies of English Grammar are to abandon the Latin model and to adopt the view expressed in this note.

Remark 1.—The potential mode is formed by prefixing some one of the auxiliary verbs—*may, might; can, could; shall, should; will, would;* or *must*—to the infinitive of the principal verb, with the sign *to* omitted.

EXAMPLES.—1. I may run = I may (to) run.

2. The student must think for himself = must (to) think for himself.

3. The boy could not be patient = could not (to) be patient.

Remark 2.—The potential mode, like the indicative, may be used in interrogative and exclamatory sentences.

Remark 3.—The auxiliary *may*, with its past tense *might*, signifies *permission, probability, or possibility*. In the first person these auxiliaries, when used interrogatively, express a *wish*; as, *May I have the book?*

Remark 4.—The auxiliary *can* and its past tense *could* imply *power or ability* in the subject; as, He *can* (= is able to) *accomplish* the task.

Remark 5.—The auxiliary *will* expresses *purpose and determination*; the past tense *would* denotes *purpose, intent, or wish*.

Remark 6.—The auxiliary *shall* denotes *obligation and compulsion*; the past tense *should* denotes *obligation and duty*.

EXAMPLES.—1. I *will* (= am determined to) *remain* here.

2. He *shall* (= is obliged to) *yield* to necessity.

3. We *would* (= prefer to) *pursue* some other plan.

4. Men *should* (= ought to) *uphold* good laws.

Remark 7.—The auxiliary *must* denotes simple necessity; as, All men *must* die.

18. That form of the verb which denotes *command, exhortation, entreaty, or permission*, is called the **Imperative Mode**.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Remember* to be present on Tuesday.

2. *Go* not in the way of temptation.

Here the verbs “remember” and “go” are in the imperative mode.

Remark 1.—From the very nature of *command*, *entreaty*, etc., it will be seen that the imperative mode will be mostly employed in *the second person*.

Remark 2.—In its ordinary use the imperative mode employs the simplest form of the verb, without an auxiliary—the subject-nominative being omitted.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Proceed* with the recitation.

2. *Strive* to reach the highest rank.

Here “proceed” and “strive” are the simplest forms of the verbs *to proceed* and *to strive*. The subject-nominative *thou* or *you* is omitted after “proceed” and “strive.”

Remark 3.—In the second person the auxiliary *do* is frequently employed in the formation of the imperative mode.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Do* not *rush* blindly into danger.

2. *Do* thou *hold* fast the truth.

Remark 4.—The imperative mode in the first and the third person is generally formed by the use of the auxiliary *let* before the infinitive of the principal verb, with *to* omitted.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Let* me *move* slowly through the street.

2. *Let* him *command* who dares to lead in fight.*

Remark 5.—In the third person the imperative is sometimes formed without *let*.

*It will be seen that in the first and third persons, imperative, a personal pronoun (me, him, etc.) is inserted between “let” and the principal verb. Most grammarians have construed this pronoun as being the object of “let,” while the subject of “let” is said to be *thou* understood. Such a construction is cumbersome, far-fetched, and illogical. If the expression “Let me reflect” means “Let *thou* me to reflect,” then the principal verb becomes *second* person, and is not *first* person at all. In the expression “Let me reflect” the verb is “Let reflect,” and the subject is “me,” the same being a subject-objective.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *Be* this *disproved*, then all the rest is plain.
 2. *Come* storm or sunshine, faith is still the same.

19. That form of the verb which expresses the idea of the verb in a *general sense*, without limitation of person or number, is called **the Infinitive Mode**.

Remark 1.—The infinitive mode is formed by placing **to** before the simple form of a verb, or **to have** before a perfect participle.

EXAMPLES.—*To have, to think, to sleep; to have loved, to have thought, to have remembered, etc.*

Remark 2.—The general use of the infinitive mode is to denote *the purpose, aim, or tendency* of an action or state of being.

- EXAMPLES.—1. He went to Paris *to complete* his education.
 2. He read the book *to satisfy* his mind.

Remark 3.—The infinitive mode is much used as a *verbal noun*, and, as such, is either the subject or the object of a verb.*

20. Actions and states of being, represented as *continuing* or *completed*, and *without reference to a subject*, are expressed by certain forms of the verb, called **Participles**.

The participles are three in number:

1. The first participle denotes action or being as *continuing*.

EXAMPLES.—Writing, thinking, being, reciting, etc.

This form of the verb, always ending with **ing**, is called **the Present Participle**.

2. The second participle represents action or being as *completed in the past*.

EXAMPLES.—Loved, remembered, hoped, run, etc.

* See page 51.

This variation of the verb, generally ending in **d** or **ed**, is called the **Past Participle**.

3. The third participle represents action or being as *completed at some definite time*.

EXAMPLES.—Having loved, having told, having been, etc.

This form of the verb is called the **Perfect Participle**.

Remark.—The word “participle” means *partaking of*; and this form of the verb is so called because it *partakes of* the nature of the adjective and the noun as well as of the verb.

EXERCISES.

1. State the Modes of the verbs in Exercises on page 95.
2. Write five sentences having verbs in the Indicative Mode.
3. Illustrate the Subjunctive and Potential Modes with five sentences each.
4. Illustrate the Imperative and Infinitive Modes with two sentences each.
5. Write three sentences containing Participles.

III. TENSE.

21. Principle 3.—The form of a verb may indicate *the time* of the action or state of being expressed by it.

22. That form of a verb which denotes *the time of the action or state of being* expressed by it is called **Tense**.*

1. The time of the action or state of being expressed by a verb may be—I. Present Time; II. Past Time; III. Future Time.

2. Based on the three divisions of time are three classes of tenses: I. *Present* tenses; II. *Past* tenses; III. *Future* tenses.

3. Every action expressed by a verb is either *continuous* action or *completed* action.

*The word “tense” (Latin *tempus*, French *temps*) means *time*.

4. That tense which expresses *continuous action in present time* is called **the Present Tense**.

EXAMPLES.—*I write; You walk; He is running.*

5. That tense which expresses *completed action in present time* is called **the Present Perfect Tense**.

EXAMPLES.—*I have written; You have recited; He has loved.*

6. That tense which expresses *continuous or completed action at an indefinite past time* is called **the Past Tense**.

EXAMPLES.—*I walked; You rode; He remained.*

7. That tense which expresses *completed action at a definite past time* is called **the Past Perfect Tense**.

EXAMPLES.—*I had learned; You had begun; He had come.*

8. That tense which expresses *continuous or uncompleted action in future time* is called **the Future Tense**.

EXAMPLES.—*I shall go; You will return; He will remain.*

9. That tense which expresses *completed action at a definite future time* is called **the Future Perfect Tense**.

EXAMPLES.—*I shall have loved; You will have gone.*

Remark.—These six tenses cover all the time-relations of thought as it is expressed in the English language.

EXERCISES.

1. State the Tenses of the verbs in Exercises on page 117.
2. Illustrate the six Tenses with two sentences each.

IV. NUMBER AND PERSON.

23. Principle 4.—The form of a verb may express agreement with its subject in *number* and *person*.

24. Those changes in form which verbs undergo in order to express agreement with the person and number of their subjects are called **the Number and Person of the Verb.**

1. If *the subject* of a verb is of the singular number, *the verb* is said to be of the singular number.

2. If *the subject* of a verb is of the plural number, *the verb* is said to be of the plural number.

EXAMPLE.—	{	I walk;	We walk;
		Thou walk- est ;	You walk;
		He walk- s .	They walk.

Here the *est* of the verb “walkest” is to denote agreement in person and number with its subject, the pronoun “thou;” and the *s* of the verb “walks” is to denote agreement in person and number with its subject, the pronoun “he.”

Remark 1.—In the case of *plural subjects*, verbs have no changes in form to indicate person and number.

Note.—In Old English, verbs in the plural ended with *en* or *eth*.

Remark 2.—The person and number of the verb are *derived* properties—not belonging to the verb itself, but to the subject-nominative of the verb.

EXERCISES.

I. State the Number and Person of the verbs in the following sentences:

1. Thou seest. 2. He ran away. 3. They do not believe.
4. We entered the house. 5. The boy saw a giraffe. 6. The poet was honored. 7. Ye have set at nought my counsels.

II. 1. Write five sentences illustrating the Person and Number of verbs.

2. Illustrate the Second and Third Persons of verbs with three examples each.

III. CONJUGATION.

25. The process of forming in regular order the voices, modes, and tenses of verbs is called **Conjugation**.

Conjugation is effected by placing before the simple form of the principal verb, or a participle of the principal verb, certain auxiliaries for the successive tenses.

EXAMPLES.—I *shall* write; I *have* walked.

Here the auxiliary “shall” is placed before the simple form of the verb “write,” and the auxiliary “have” before the past participle “walked.”

METHOD OF FORMING THE MODES AND TENSES.

Active Voice.

I. INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense—The simple form of the verb, with the endings *st* for the second person, singular, and *s* or *th* for the third person, singular.

Present Perfect Tense—The auxiliaries *have*, *hast*, *has*, for the singular, and *have* for the plural, placed before the past participle of the principal verb.

Past Tense—The simple form of the verb, with *d* or *ed* added and *st* suffixed to the second person, singular.*

Past Perfect Tense—The auxiliaries *had*, *hadst*, *had*, for the singular, and *had* for the plural, placed before the past participle of the principal verb.

Future Tense—The auxiliary *shall* for the first person, singular and plural, and the auxiliary *will* for the second and third persons, singular and plural, placed before the simple form of the verb.

*This scheme is for Regular verbs.

Future Perfect Tense—The auxiliaries *shall have* for the first person, singular and plural, and *will have* for the second and third persons, singular and plural, placed before the past participle of the principal verb.

II. SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense—1. The simple form of the verb, preceded by *if, unless, except, etc.*; or, 2. The corresponding tense of the indicative, preceded by *if, unless, except, etc.*

Present Perfect Tense—The perfect participle of the verb, preceded by the auxiliary *have (hast, has)* and the conjunction *if, unless, except, etc.*

Past Tense—1. The uninflected past tense of the indicative mode, preceded by the conjunction *if, etc.*; or, 2. The past tense of the indicative, *with its verbal inflection in second person, singular, —*preceded in like manner.

All other Tenses—The corresponding tenses of the indicative mode, preceded by the conjunction *if, unless, etc.*; or the same *without inflection in second person, singular*

III. POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense—The simple form of the verb, preceded by the auxiliary *may, can, or must.*

Present Perfect Tense—The perfect participle of the verb, preceded by *may have, can have, or must have.*

Past Tense—The simple form of the verb, preceded by the auxiliary *might, could, would, or should.*

Past Perfect Tense—The perfect participle of the verb, preceded by *might have, could have, would have, or should have.*

Future Tense—The simple form of the verb, preceded by *will* (emphatic) for first person, singular and plural, and *shall* (emphatic) for second and third persons.

Future Perfect Tense—The perfect participle, preceded by *will have* for first person, singular and plural, and *shall have* for second and third persons, singular and plural. *

IV. IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense—1. The simple form of the verb, with nominative *thou, you, or ye* (generally understood), for second person; or, 2. The simple form of the verb, preceded by *let* for first and third persons, or *do* for the second person.

All other tenses wanting.

V. INFINITIVE MODE.

Present Tense—The simple form of the verb, preceded by *to*.

Present Perfect Tense—The perfect participle of the verb, preceded by *to have*.

All other tenses wanting.

VI. THE PARTICIPLES.

Present Tense—The simple form of the verb, with the affix *ing* added according to the rules of orthography.

Present Perfect Tense—The perfect participle of the principal verb, preceded by the present participle *having*.

Past Tense—The simple form of the verb, with *d* or *ed* added. †

Passive Voice.

All Modes and Tenses—The perfect participle of the principal verb, preceded by the appropriate tenses of the verb TO BE. ‡

* It is a matter of surprise that many grammarians who recognize *should* and *would* as proper auxiliaries of the potential mode, seem to forget that *shall* and *will*, being the present tenses of *should* and *would*, are also, in the very nature of the case, auxiliaries of the same mode. One thing is certain: either the potential mode has its regular future tenses, formed with *shall* and *will*—the latter auxiliary expressing *determination*, and the former *compulsion*—or else *should* and *would* are not proper auxiliaries of this mode at all.

† For past tense of irregular verbs, see Table, page 159.

‡ For conjugation, see page 138.

26. Principle 5.—Verbs may undergo a change in form to denote *the continuity* or *emphasis* of the action or state of being expressed by them.

1. That form of the verb which denotes action *without respect to continuity* or *emphasis*, is called **the Common Form**.

2. That form of the verb which denotes *continuity of action without emphasis* is called **the Progressive Form**.

3. That form of the verb which denotes *action with emphasis* is called **the Emphatic Form**.

EXAMPLES OF THE COMMON FORM.—I write; He walks; We go; They came; The girls study; The men conversed; etc.

EXAMPLES OF THE PROGRESSIVE FORM.—I am writing; He is walking; We are going; They were coming; The girls are studying; The men were conversing; etc.

EXAMPLES OF THE EMPHATIC FORM.—I do write; He does walk; We do go; They did come; The girls do study; The men did converse; etc.

Remark 1.—It will be seen that the progressive form of the verb is produced by placing some part of the verb *to be* before the present participle of a principal verb.

Remark 2.—The emphatic form is produced by placing some part of the verb *to do* before the simple form of the verb.

Remark 3.—The emphatic form of the verb occurs only in the *present* and the *past tense*. In all the other tenses emphasis is marked, in printing, by *Italics*, and in speaking, by a stress of the voice on the emphatic words—thus: I *have* written; I *shall* return; The man *had* forgotten his errand.

EXERCISES.

1. Write three sentences with verbs in the Common Form.
2. Write three sentences with verbs in the Progressive Form.
3. Write three sentences with verbs in the Emphatic Form.

27. All the forms of the verb are produced from a few simple forms called **the Principal Parts of the Verb.**

The Principal Parts of the verb are :

1. The first person, singular number, of the present tense, indicative mode.
2. The first person, singular, of the past tense, indicative.
3. The present participle.
4. The past participle.

EXAMPLE. — The verb *to love*: Love, loved, loving, loved.

Remark. — In all *regular* verbs the past tense and the past participle *are identical*. In *irregular* verbs the forms are generally different — thus: *Wrote, written; ran, run; etc.*

I. THE SUBSTANTIVE VERB “TO BE.”

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present — Am or be; *Past* — Was; *Present Participle* — Being;
Past Participle — Been.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
I am,	We are,
Thou art,	You are,*
He is;	They are.

Present Perfect Tense.

I have been,	We have been,
Thou hast been,	You have been,
He has been;	They have been.

* The form “you are” is used for the second person, *singular*, as well as the second person, *plural*, except in solemn style and in the form of speech employed by the Society of Friends. See page 83.

SINGULAR.	<i>Past Tense.</i>	PLURAL.
I was,		We were,
Thou wast,		You were,
He was;		They were.

<i>Past Perfect Tense.</i>		
I had been,		We had been,
Thou hadst been,		You had been,
He had been;		They had been.

<i>Future Tense.</i>		
I shall be,*		We shall be,
Thou wilt be,		You will be,
He will be;		They will be.

<i>Future Perfect Tense.</i>		
I shall have been,		We shall have been,
Thou wilt have been,		You will have been,
He will have been;		They will have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Tense.</i>		
If I be <i>or</i> am,†		If we be <i>or</i> are,
If thou be <i>or</i> art,		If you be <i>or</i> are,
If he be <i>or</i> is;		If they be <i>or</i> are.

* The general rule is that *shall* is the proper auxiliary for the first person and *will* for the second and third persons. These auxiliaries, so used, express *simple futurity*. There are several variations from this rule, but they are so subtle as to belong to the philosophy of language rather than to a treatise on grammar. *Shall* and *will*, denoting *determination* and *compulsion*, belong to the potential mode, not the indicative.

† The true subjunctive "if I be" expresses *the hypothesis of doubt or uncertainty*: the indicative form "if I am" expresses *the presumptive hypothesis*, taking the condition for granted as *true*. The tendency in the English language is to use the presumptive hypothesis, and not the hypothesis of doubt.

Present Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

If I have been,
 If thou have *or* hast been,
 If he have *or* has been;

PLURAL.

If we have been,
 If you have been,
 If they have been.

Past Tense.

If I were *or* was,
 If thou were, wert, *or* wast,
 If he were *or* was;

If we were,
 If you were,
 If they were.

Past Perfect Tense.

If I had been,
 If thou had *or* hadst been,*
 If he had been;

If we had been,
 If you had been,
 If they had been.

Future Tense.

If I shall be,
 If thou will *or* wilt be,
 If he will be;

If we shall be,
 If you will be,
 If they will be.

Future Perfect Tense.

If I shall have been,
 If thou will *or* wilt have been,
 If he will have been;

If we shall have been,
 If you will have been,
 If they will have been.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

I may be,†
 Thou mayst be,
 He may be;

We may be,
 You may be,
 They may be.

* The form "if thou had been" is very rare in Modern English.

† In all tenses where "may" is used, *can* or *must* may be substituted as the auxiliary; and where "might" occurs, *could*, *would*, or *should*, may be used instead. In like manner *can have* or *must have* may be used for "may have," and *could have*, etc., for "might have."

Present Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

I may have been,
Thou mayst have been,
He may have been;

PLURAL.

We may have been,
You may have been,
They may have been.

*Past Tense.**

I might be,
Thou mightst be,
He might be;

We might be,
You might be,
They might be.

Past Perfect Tense.

I might have been,
Thou mightst have been,
He might have been;

We might have been,
You might have been,
They might have been.

Future Tense.

I will be,
Thou shalt be,
He shall be;

We will be,
You shall be,
They shall be.

Future Perfect Tense.

I will have been,
Thou shalt have been,
He shall have been;

We will have been,
You shall have been,
They shall have been.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Let me be,
Be thou, *or* do thou be,
Let him be;

Let us be, [you be,
Be ye *or* you, *or* do ye *or*
Let them be.

*In the past potential there is a conflict between *Logic* and *Grammar*. *Logic* indicates that the tense should be called *present* or *future*; for the action expressed by the tense is generally present or future. *Grammar*, which has to do with the *forms* of language, indicates that the tense should be called "*past* tense;" for the auxiliaries "might," "could," "would," etc., are undoubtedly past tenses.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present—To be; *Present Perfect*—To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

Present—Being; *Past*—Been; *Present Perfect*—Having been.

28. An abridged conjugation of the verb is produced by giving only *the first person, singular number*, of each of the tenses. Such an abridgment is called a **Synopsis**.*

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB "TO BE."

INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present</i> . . . I am;	<i>Past Per.</i> . I had been;
<i>Pres. Per.</i> . I have been;	<i>Future</i> . . . I shall be;
<i>Past</i> I was;	<i>Fut. Per.</i> . I shall have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present</i> . . . If I be or am;	<i>Past Per.</i> . If I had been;
<i>Pres. Per.</i> . If I have been;	<i>Future</i> . . . If I shall be;
<i>Past</i> If I were or was;	<i>Fut. Per.</i> . If I shall have been.

POTENTIAL MODE.

<i>Present</i> . . . I may be;	<i>Past Per.</i> . I might have been;
<i>Pres. Per.</i> . I may have been;	<i>Future</i> . . . I will be;
<i>Past</i> I might be;	<i>Fut. Per.</i> . I will have been.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present—Let me be, etc.

* After practice, the student should give the Synopsis *only*.

II. THE REGULAR VERB "TO LOVE."

Active Voice.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present—Love; *Past*—Loved; *Present Participle*—Loving;
Past Participle—Loved.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

I love,
Thou lovest,
He loves;

PLURAL.

We love,
You love,
They love.

Present Perfect Tense.

I have loved,
Thou hast loved,
He has loved;

We have loved,
You have loved,
They have loved.

Past Tense.

I loved,
Thou lovedst,
He loved;

We loved,
You loved,
They loved.

Past Perfect Tense.

I had loved,
Thou hadst loved,
He had loved;

We had loved,
You had loved,
They had loved.

Future Tense.

I shall love,
Thou wilt love,
He will love;

We shall love,
You will love,
They will love.

Future Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

I shall have loved,
 Thou wilt have loved,
 He will have loved;

PLURAL.

We shall have loved,
 You will have loved,
 They will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.*

Present Tense.

If I love,
 If thou love *or* lovest,
 If he love *or* loves;

If we love,
 If you love,
 If they love.

Present Perfect Tense.

If I have loved,
 If thou have *or* hast loved,
 If he have *or* has loved;

If we have loved,
 If you have loved,
 If they have loved.

Past Tense.

If I loved,
 If thou loved *or* lovedst,
 If he loved;

If we loved,
 If you loved,
 If they loved.

Past Perfect Tense.

If I had loved,
 If thou had *or* hadst loved,
 If he had loved;

If we had loved,
 If you had loved,
 If they had loved.

Future Tense.

If I shall love,
 If thou will *or* wilt love,
 If he will love;

If we shall love,
 If you will love,
 If they will love.

*The subjunctive form of conjugation may, of course, be carried on through the potential mode by prefixing "if" to the several tenses of that mode—thus: If I may love; if I may have loved; if I might love; if I might have loved; etc.

Future Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

If I shall have loved,
If thou wilt or wilt have loved,
If he will have loved;

PLURAL.

If we shall have loved,
If you will have loved,
If they will have loved.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

I may love,
Thou mayst love,
He may love;

We may love,
You may love,
They may love.

Present Perfect Tense.

I may have loved,
Thou mayst have loved,
He may have loved;

We may have loved,
You may have loved,
They may have loved.

Past Tense.

I might love,
Thou mightst love,
He might love;

We might love,
You might love,
They might love.

Past Perfect Tense.

I might have loved,
Thou mightst have loved,
He might have loved;

We might have loved,
You might have loved,
They might have loved.

Future Tense.

I will love,*
Thou shalt love,
He shall love;

We will love,
You shall love,
They shall love.

*The future tenses of the potential are always uttered with a strong emphasis on the auxiliary—thus: I *will* go; He *shall* obey; etc. The reference is not to the *futurity* of the action, but to *determination* and *will*.

Future Perfect Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

I will have loved,
 Thou shalt have loved,
 He shall have loved;

We will have loved,
 You shall have loved,
 They shall have loved.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Let me love,
 Love thou *or* do thou love,
 Let him love;

Let us love,
 Love ye *or* you,
 Let them love.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present—To love; *Present Perfect*—To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present—Loving; *Past*--Loved; *Present Perfect*—Having loved.

SYNOPSIS OF THE VERB "TO LOVE."

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present—I love; *Present Perfect*—I have loved; etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present—If I love; *Present Perfect*—If I have loved; etc.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present—I may love; *Present Perfect*—I may have loved; etc.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present—Let me love, etc.

EXERCISES.

Conjugate the Regular verbs: Walk, believe, hope, trust.

III. THE IRREGULAR VERB "TO SEE."

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres.—See; *Past*—Saw; *Pres. Part.*—Seeing; *Past Part.*—Seen.

INDICATIVE MODE.

SINGULAR.	<i>Present Tense.</i>	PLURAL.
I see,		We see,
Thou seest,		You see,
He sees;		They see.

Present Perfect Tense.

I have seen,	We have seen,
Thou hast seen,	You have seen,
He has seen;	They have seen.

Past Tense.

I saw,	We saw,
Thou sawest,	You saw,
He saw;	They saw.

Past Perfect Tense.

I had seen,	We had seen,
Thou hadst seen,	You had seen,
He had seen;	They had seen.

Future Tense.

I shall see,	We shall see,
Thou wilt see,	You will see,
He will see;	They will see.

Future Perfect Tense.

I shall have seen,	We shall have seen,
Thou wilt have seen,	You shall have seen,
He will have seen;	They shall have seen.

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

If I see,
 If thou see *or* seest,
 If he see *or* sees;

PLURAL.

If we see,
 If you see,
 If they see.

Present Perfect Tense.

If I have seen,
 If thou have *or* hast seen,
 If he have *or* has seen;

If we have seen,
 If you have seen,
 If they have seen.

Past Tense.

If I saw,
 If thou saw *or* sawest,
 If he saw;

If we saw,
 If you saw,
 If they saw.

Past Perfect Tense.

If I had seen,
 If thou had *or* hadst seen,
 If he had seen;

If we had seen,
 If you had seen,
 If they had seen.

Future Tense.

If I shall see,
 If thou will *or* wilt see,
 If he will see;

If we shall see,
 If you will see,
 If they will see.

Future Perfect Tense.

If I shall have seen,
 If thou will *or* wilt have seen,
 If he will have seen;

If we shall have seen,
 If you will have seen,
 If they will have seen.

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

I may see,
Thou mayst see,
He may see;

We may see,
You may see,
They may see.

Present Perfect Tense.

I may have seen,
Thou mayst have seen,
He may have seen;

We may have seen,
You may have seen,
They may have seen.

Past Tense.

I might see,
Thou mightst see,
He might see;

We might see,
You might see,
They might see.

Past Perfect Tense.

I might have seen,
Thou mightst have seen,
He might have seen;

We might have seen,
You might have seen,
They might have seen.

Future Tense.

I will see,
Thou shalt see,
He shall see;

We will see,
You shall see,
They shall see.

Future Perfect Tense.

I will have seen,
Thou shalt have seen,
He shall have seen;

We will have seen,
You shall have seen,
They shall have seen.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Let me see,	Let us see,
See thou, <i>or</i> do thou see,	See ye <i>or</i> you, <i>or</i> do you see,
Let him see;	Let them see.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present—To see; *Present Perfect*—To have seen.

PARTICIPLES.

Present—Seeing; *Past*—Seen; *Present Perfect*—Having seen.

Remark.—A synopsis of any irregular verb may be formed after the model of the verb “to be” (page 142) by inserting the irregular parts in the appropriate tenses—thus: *Present*—I see; *Present Perfect*—I have seen; *Past*—I saw; etc., etc.

EXERCISES.

Conjugate the following Irregular verbs: Bring, hear, feel, know, speak, think.

IV. THE REGULAR VERB “TO LOVE.”

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

I am	} loved.
Thou art	
He is	
We are	
You are	
They are	

Present Perfect Tense.

I have	} been loved.
Thou hast	
He has	
We have	
You have	
They have	

Past Tense.

I was	}	loved.
Thou wast		
He was		
We were		
You were		
They were		

Past Perfect Tense.

I had	}	been loved.
Thou hadst		
He had		
We had		
You had		
They had		

Future Tense.

I shall	}	be loved.
Thou wilt		
He will		
We shall		
You will		
They will		

Future Perfect Tense.

I shall	}	have been loved.
Thou wilt		
He will		
We shall		
You will		
They will		

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

If I be <i>or</i> am	}	loved
If thou be <i>or</i> art		
If he be <i>or</i> is		
If we be <i>or</i> are		
If you be <i>or</i> are		
If they be <i>or</i> are		

Present Perfect Tense.

If I have	}	been loved.
If thou have <i>or</i> hast		
If he have <i>or</i> has		
If we have		
If you have		
If they have		

Past Tense.

If I were <i>or</i> was [wast]	}	loved.
If thou were, wert <i>or</i>		
If he were <i>or</i> was		
If we were		
If you were		
If they were		

Past Perfect Tense.

If I had	}	been loved.
If thou had <i>or</i> hadst		
If he had		
If we had		
If you had		
If they had		

Future Tense.

If I shall	}	be loved.
If thou wilt <i>or</i> wilt		
If he will		
If we shall		
If you will		
If they will		

Future Perfect Tense.

If I shall	}	have been loved.
If thou wilt <i>or</i> wilt		
If he will		
If we shall		
If you will		
If they will		

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

I may	}	be loved.
Thou mayst		
He may		
We may		
You may		
They may		

Present Perfect Tense.

I may	}	have been loved.
Thou mayst		
He may		
We may		
You may		
They may		

Past Tense.

I might	}	be loved.
Thou mightst		
He might		
We might		
You might		
They might		

Past Perfect Tense.

I might	}	have been loved.
Thou mightst		
He might		
We might		
You might		
They might		

Future Tense.

I will	}	be loved.
Thou shalt		
He shall		
We will		
You shall		
They shall		

Future Perfect Tense.

I will	}	have been loved.
Thou shalt		
He shall		
We will		
You shall		
They shall		

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Let me be loved,
 Be thou *or* do thou be loved,
 Let him be loved,
 Let us be loved,
 Be ye *or* you *or* do you be loved,
 Let them be loved.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present—To be loved; *Present Perfect*—To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present—Being loved; *Present Perfect*—Having been loved;
Past—Loved.

Remark.—A synopsis of the verb in the passive voice may be made after the model given for the active voice.

EXERCISES.

Conjugate the following verbs in the Passive Voice: Believe, take, esteem.

V. THE REGULAR VERB "TO WALK."

Progressive Form.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

I am	} walking.
Thou art	
He is	
We are	
You are	
They are	

Present Perfect Tense.

I have	} been walking.
Thou hast	
He has	
We have	
You have	
They have	

Past Tense.

I was	} walking.
Thou wast	
He was	
We were	
You were	
They were	

Past Perfect Tense.

I had	} been walking.
Thou hadst	
He had	
We had	
You had	
They had	

Future Tense.

I shall	} be walking.
Thou wilt	
He will	
We shall	
You will	
They will	

Future Perfect Tense.

I shall	} have been walking.
Thou wilt	
He will	
We shall	
You will	
They will	

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

If I be <i>or</i> am	} walking.
If thou be <i>or</i> art	
If he be <i>or</i> is	
If we be <i>or</i> are	
If you be <i>or</i> are	
If they be <i>or</i> are	

Present Perfect Tense.

If I have	} been walking.
If thou have <i>or</i> hast	
If he have <i>or</i> has	
If we have	
If you have	
If they have	

Past Tense.

If I were <i>or</i> was [wast]	} walk- ing.
If thou were, wert <i>or</i>	
If he were <i>or</i> was	
If we were	
If you were	
If they were	

Past Perfect Tense.

If I had	} been walking.
If thou had <i>or</i> hadst	
If he had	
If we had	
If you had	
If they had	

Future Tense.

If I shall	}	be walk- ing.
If thou wilt or wilt		
If he will		
If we shall		
If you will		
If they will		

Future Perfect Tense.

If I shall	}	have been walking.
If thou wilt or wilt		
If he will		
If we shall		
If you will		
If they will		

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

I may	}	be walking.
Thou mayst		
He may		
We may		
You may		
They may		

Present Perfect Tense.

I may	}	have been walking.
Thou mayst		
He may		
We may		
You may		
They may		

Past Tense.

I might	}	be walking.
Thou mightst		
He might		
We might		
You might		
They might		

Past Perfect Tense.

I might	}	have been walking.
Thou mightst		
He might		
We might		
You might		
They might		

Future Tense.

I will	}	be walking.
Thou shalt		
He shall		
We will		
You shall		
They shall		

Future Perfect Tense.

I will	}	have been walking.
Thou shalt		
He shall		
We will		
You shall		
They shall		

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Let me be walking,
 Be thou *or* do thou be walking,
 Let him be walking,
 Let us be walking,
 Be ye *or* do you be walking,
 Let them be walking.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present—To be walking; *Present Perfect*—To have been walking.

PARTICIPLES.

Present—Walking; * *Past* —; *Present Perfect*—Having been walking.

EXERCISES.

Conjugate the following verbs in the Progressive Form:
 Move, play, study, recite.

VI. THE IRREGULAR VERB "TO TAKE."

Emphatic Form.

INDICATIVE MODE.

*Present Tense.**Past Tense.*

I do	} take.
Thou dost	
He does	
We do	
You do	
They do	

I did	} take.
Thou didst	
He did	
We did	
You did	
They did	

* The present participle expresses continuous action *in virtue of its own nature*.
 The *past* participle has no progressive form.

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Do thou take. Do ye take.*

VII. THE REGULAR VERB “TO LEARN.”

Negative Form.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

I learn not,	}	<i>or,</i>
Thou learnest not,		
He learns not,		
We learn not,		
You learn not,		
They learn not;		

Present Tense—2d Form.

I do not learn,
Thou dost not learn,
He does not learn,
We do not learn,
You do not learn,
They do not learn.

Present Perfect Tense.

I have not learned;
Thou hast not learned; etc., etc.

Past Tense.

I learned not; *or*,
I did not learn; etc., etc.

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present—Not to learn; *Present Perfect*—Not to have learned.

PARTICIPLES.

Present—Not learning; *Present Perfect*—Not having learned;
Past—Not learned.

Remark.—It will be seen that the negative conjugation is effected—

1. By placing “not” after the principal verb *when there is no auxiliary*;

* For emphatic forms in remaining modes and tenses, see Remark 3, page 137.

2. By placing "not" after the first auxiliary, *when there is one*;
3. By placing "not" before *infinitives* and *participles*.

VIII. THE IRREGULAR VERB "TO GIVE."

Interrogative Form.

INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Present—2d Form.</i>		<i>Present—3d Form.</i>
Give I?	} <i>or,</i>	Do I give?	} <i>or,</i>	Am I giving?
Givest thou?		Dost thou give?		Art thou giving?
Gives he?		Does he give?		Is he giving?
Give we?		Do we give?		Are we giving?
Give you?		Do you give?		Are you giving?
Give they?		Do they give?		Are they giving?

Present Perfect Tense.

Have I given? *or,*
 Have I been giving?
 Etc., etc.

Future Tense.

Shall I give? *or,*
 Shall I be giving?
 Etc., etc.

Past Tense.

Gave I? *or,*
 Did I give? *or,*
 Was I giving?
 Etc., etc.

Past Perfect Tense.

Had I given? *or,*
 Had I been giving?
 Etc., etc.

Remark.—The conjugation of the verb in the negative and interrogative forms may be continued through the other modes according to the analogy of the indicative.

28. Verbs which form their past tense and past participle in some manner other than by adding *d* or *ed* to the simple form of the verb, are called **Irregular Verbs**.

TABLE OF IRREGULAR VERBS.*

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Abide,	abode,	abode.
Am,	was,	been.
Arise,	arose,	arisen.
Awake,	awoke, † awaked,	awaked, awoke.
Bear,	bore, bare,	borne, ‡ born.
Beat,	beat,	beaten, beat.
Become,	became,	became.
Befall,	befell,	befallen.
Beget,	begot, begat,	begotten, begot.
Begin,	began,	begun.
Behold,	beheld,	beheld.
Belay,	belaid,	belaid.
Bend,	bent, bended,	bent, bended.
Bereave,	bereft, bereaved,	bereft, bereaved.
Beseech,	besought,	besought.
Bet,	bet, betted,	bet, betted.
Bid,	bade, bid,	bidden, bid.
Bind,	bound,	bound.
Bite,	bit,	bitten, bit.
Bleed,	bled,	bled.
Bless,	blessed, blest,	blessed, blest.
Break,	broke, brake,	broken, broke.
Breed,	bred,	bred.
Bring,	brought,	brought.
Build,	built, builded,	built, builded.
Burn,	burnt, burned,	burned, burnt.

* This table should be thoroughly studied. In the practical grammar of every-day life no errors are so common as those which arise from the misuse of the principal parts of irregular verbs.

† Where double forms occur *the preferable is given first.*

‡ The teacher will discriminate the different senses of "borne" and "born." So in other cases where the parts of a verb have *different meanings*. Where the verbs themselves (though having a common orthography) *differ in derivation*, they will be distinguished in the table.

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Burst,	burst,	burst.
Buy,	bought,	bought.
Cast,	cast,	cast.
Catch,	caught, catchèd,	caught, catchèd.
Chide,	chid,	chidden, chid.
Choose,	chose,	chosen.
Cleave,* (<i>to split</i>),	cleft, clove,	cleft, cloven.
Cling,	clung,	clung.
Clothe,	clothed, clad,	clothed, clad.
Come,	came,	come.
Cost,	cost,	cost.
Creep,	crept,	crept.
Crow,	crew, crowed,	crowed.
Cut,	cut,	cut.
Dare,	dared, durst,	dared.
Deal,	dealt,	dealt.
Dig,	digged, dug,	digged, dug.
Do,	did,	done.
Draw,	drew,	drawn.
Dream,	dreamed, dreamt,	dreamed, dreamt.
Dress,	dressed,* drest,	dressed, drest.
Drive,	drove,	driven.
Dwell,	dwelt, dwelled,	dwelt, dwelled.
Eat,	ate,	eaten.
Fall,	fell,	fallen.
Feed,	fed,	fed.
Feel,	felt,	felt.
Fight,	fought,	fought.
Find,	found,	found.

* Cleave, *to adhere*, is regular, the past tense *clave* having become obsolete.

* Such verbs as *dress*, *bless*, etc., should hardly be called *irregular* verbs. The difference between *dressed* and *drest*, *blessed* and *blest*, is only a difference in orthography. The pronunciation—except in the case where *blessed* is a participial adjective pronounced in two syllables—is the same, and the irregularity in the spelling might well be neglected.

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Flee,	fled,	fled.
Fling,	flung,	flung.
Fly,	flew,	flown.
Forbear,	forbore,	forborne.
Forget,	forgot,	forgotten, forgot.
Forsake,	forsook,	forsaken.
Freeze,	froze,	frozen.
Freight,	frighted,	frighted, fraught.
Gainsay,	gainsaid,	gainsaid.
Get,	got,	gotten, got.
Gild,	gilded, gilt,	gilded, gilt.
Gird,	girded, girt,	girded, girt.
Give,	gave,	given.
Go,	went,	gone.
Graved,	graved,	graved, graven.
Grind,	ground,	ground.
Grow,	grew,	grown.
Hang,	hanged, hung,	hanged, hung.
Have,	had,	had.
Hear,	heard,	heard.
Heave,	heaved, hove.	heaved, hove.
Hew,	hewed,	hewed, hewn.
Hide,	hid,	hidden, hid.
Hit,	hit,	hit.
Hold,	held,	held, holden.
Hurt,	hurt,	hurt.
Keep,	kept,	kept.
Kneel,	knelt, kneeled,	knelt, kneeled.
Knit,	knit, knitted,	knit, knitted.
Know,	knew,	known.
Lay,	laid,	laid.
Lead,	led,	led.
Lean,	leaned, leant,	leaned, leant.
Leap,	leaped, leapt,	leaped, leapt.
Learn,	learned, learnt,	learned, learnt.

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Leave,	left,	left.
Lend,	lent,	lent.
Let,	let,	let.
Lie,	lay,	lain.
Lighted,	lighted, lit,	lighted, lit.
Load,	loaded,	loaded, laden.
Lose,	lost,	lost.
Make,	made,	made.
Mean,	meant,	meant.
Meet,	met,	met.
Melt,	melted,	melted, molten.
Mow,	mowed,	mowed, mown.
Pass,	passed, past,	passed, past.
Pay,	paid,	paid.
Pen,	pent, penned,	pent, penned.
Put,	put,	put.
Quit,	quit, quitted,	quit, quitted.
Rap,	rapped, rapt,	rapped, rapt.
Read,	read,	read.
Rend,	rent,	rent.
Rid,	rid,	rid.
Ride,	rode,	ridden.
Ring,	rang, rung,	rung.
Rise,	rose,	risen.
Rive,	rived,	rived, riven.
Run,	ran,	run.
Saw,	sawed,	sawed, sawn.
Say,	said,	said.
See,	saw,	seen.
Seek,	sought,	sought.
Seethe,	seethed,	seethed, sodden.
Set,	set,	set.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.
Shape,	shaped,	shaped, shapen.
Shave,	shaved,	shaved, shaven.

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Shear,	sheared, shore,	shorn, sheared.
Shed,	shed,	shed.
Shine,	shone, shined,	shone, shined.
Shoe,	shod,	shod.
Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Show,	showed,	shown.
Shred,	shred,	shred.
Shrink,	shrank, shrunk,	shrunk, shrunk.
Shut,	shut,	shut.
Sing,	sang, sung,	sung.
Sink,	sank, sunk,	sunk.
Sit,	sat,	sat.
Slay,	slew,	slain.
Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Sling,	slung,	slung.
Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Slit,	slit,	slit.
Smell,	smelled, smelt.	smelled, smelt.
Smite,	smote,	smitten, smit.
Sow,	sowed,	sown, sowed.
Speak,	spoke, spake,	spoken.
Speed,	sped,	sped.
Spell,	spelled, spelt,	spelled, spelt.
Spend,	spent,	spent.
Spill,	spilled, spilt,	spilled, spilt.
Spin,	spun,	spun.
Spit,	spit,	spit.
Split,	split,	split.
Spread,	spread,	spread.
Spring,	sprang, sprung,	sprung.
Spoil,	spoiled, spoilt,	spoiled, spoilt.
Stand,	stood,	stood.
Stave,	staved, stove,	staved, stove.
Stay,	staid, stayed,	staid, stayed.
Steal,	stole,	stolen.

PRESENT TENSE.	PAST TENSE.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
Stick,	stuck,	stuck.
Sting,	stung,	stung.
Strew,	strewed,	strewn.
Stride,	strode,	stridden, strid.
Strike,	struck,	struck, stricken.
String,	strung,	strung.
Strow,	strowed,	strowed, strown.
Swear,	swore, sware,	sworn.
Sweat,	sweated, sweat,	sweated, sweat.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.
Swell,	swelled,	swelled, swollen.
Swim,	swam, swum,	swum.
Swing,	swung,	swung.
Take,	took,	taken.
Teach,	taught,	taught.
Tear,	tore,	torn.
Tell,	told,	told.
Think,	thought,	thought.
Thrive,	thrived, throve,	thrived, thriven.
Throw,	threw,	thrown.
Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Tread,	trod,	trodden, trod.
Wake,	woke, waked,	waked, woke.
Wax,	waxed,	waxed, waxen.
Wear,	wore,	worn.
Weave,	wove,	woven.
Weep,	wept,	wept.
Wed,	wedded, wed,	wedded, wed.
Wet,	wet, wetted,	wet, wetted.
Whet,	whetted, whet,	whetted, whet.
Win,	won,	won..
Wind,	wound,	wound.
Work,	worked, wrought,	worked, wrought.
Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Write,	wrote,	written.

29. A few verbs are wanting in some of their Principal Parts, and are called **Defective Verbs**.

1. Most of the auxiliary verbs are defective, having no participles. The auxiliaries *be* and *have* have *present* participles *being* and *having*; *willing* is used in the independent sense.

2. The verb *beware* (= *be* and *aware*) occurs mostly in the imperative mode, and has no past tense or participles.

3. The verb *ought* (originally *owed*, past tense of the verb *owe*.) has no participle, and is therefore defective.

4. The verb *quoth* (Anglo-Saxon *cwadh*, he said or answered) is used only in the first and third persons of the past tense. *Quoth* always stands before its subject; as, "Where are you going, my lad?" *quoth* I. "To gather nuts," *quoth* he.

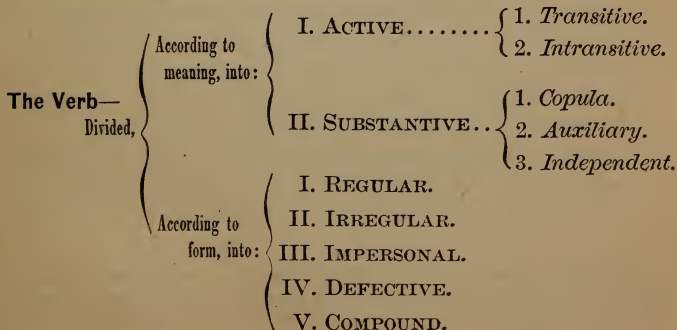
5. The verb *wit* (Anglo-Saxon *wittan*, to know) has a past tense, *wot*, and an infinitive, *to wit* = namely.

6. The verb *hark* is used only in the imperative mode.

30. A large number of verbs, composed of a verb and a preposition or a verb and an adverb, are called **Compound Adverbs**.

EXAMPLES.—To lie down, to go out, to cast up, etc.

31. Scheme of the Verb:



IV. PARSING.

ORDER OF PARSING THE VERB.

32. The order of parsing a verb is:

1. A Verb, and why;
2. Regular or Irregular, and why;
3. Principal Parts;
4. Active or Substantive, and why; *and if Active,*
5. Transitive or Intransitive, and why; *and if Transitive,**
6. Voice, and why; *and whether Active or Substantive,*
7. Mode, and why;
8. Tense, and why;
9. Number and Person, and why; and,
10. A Rule of Syntax.

Remark.—The first five of the topics determine the *classification* of the verb; the next four, its *properties*; the last, its *syntactical relation*.

MODEL FOR PARSING THE VERB.

I. The farmer calls his sons from the field.

Calls is a verb, because it expresses predication; regular, because it forms its past tense and past participle in **ed**; Principal Parts—call, called, calling, called; an active verb, because it expresses action; transitive, because the action terminates in an object; active voice, because the action is exerted by the subject; indicative mode, because it expresses a simple declaration; present tense, because the action is in present time; in the singular number and third person, agreeing with its subject “farmer,” accord-

* In active *intransitive* verbs the distinctions of voice are useless. For in the sentence, “The stream *flows*,” why should we say that “flows” is in the *active* voice when no *passive* voice is possible? Why maintain a discrimination which does not discriminate?

ing to a rule of syntax which requires that a verb shall agree with its subject-nominative in number and person.

II. The brook flows through the meadow.

Flows is a verb, because it expresses predication; regular, etc.; Principal Parts—flow, flowed, flowing, flowed; an active verb, because it expresses action; intransitive, because the action ends with the subject;* without distinctions of voice; indicative mode, because it expresses a simple declaration; present tense, because the action is in present time; in the singular number and third person, agreeing with its subject, “brook,” according to a rule of syntax, etc.

III. All the soldiers are brave.

Are is a verb, because it expresses predication; irregular, because it forms its past tense and past participle by changes other than the addition of **ed**; Principal Parts—am, was, being, been; a substantive verb, because it expresses being; indicative mode, because it expresses a simple declaration; present tense, because the predication is in present time; in the plural number and third person, agreeing with its subject, “soldiers;” etc.

IV. The Union has been preserved by war.

Has been preserved is a verb, because it expresses predication; regular, etc.; Principal Parts—preserve, preserved, preserving, preserved; an active verb, because it expresses action; transitive, because it requires an object to complete the sense;† passive voice, because the action is received by the subject; indicative mode, because it expresses a simple declaration; present perfect tense, because the ac-

* Or, *negatively*, does not terminate in an object.

† It is, of course, only in the *active voice* that an object is required to complete the sense. An object to a verb in the *passive voice* is unthinkable. Nevertheless the verb *to preserve* is an *active transitive* verb, and the discrimination would better be retained even in the *passive voice*.

tion is completed in present time; in the singular number and third person, agreeing with its subject, "Union;" etc.

V. If the engineer had looked he might have seen
the danger.

Had looked is a verb, because it expresses predication; regular, etc.; Principal Parts—look, looked, looking, looked; an active verb, because it expresses action; intransitive, because the action terminates with the subject; active voice, etc.; subjunctive mode, because it contains a supposition introduced by "if;" past perfect tense, because the action is represented as completed in past time; etc., etc.

Might have seen is a verb, because it expresses predication; irregular, forming its past tense and past participle by changes other than the addition of **ed**; Principal Parts—see, saw, seeing, seen; active, etc.; transitive, etc.; active voice, the action being exerted by the subject; potential mode, because it expresses possibility; past perfect tense, denoting action completed in past time; etc., etc.

VI. We must not leave this work to others.

Must leave is a verb, etc.; irregular, etc.; Principal Parts—leave, left, leaving, left; active, etc.; transitive, etc.; active voice, etc.; potential mode, because it expresses necessity; present tense, etc.; in the negative form, expressing the action by negation; etc., etc.

VII. Let me pass slowly through the street.

Let pass is a verb, because it denotes predication; regular, etc.; Principal Parts—pass, passed, passing, passed; active, etc.; intransitive, etc.; without distinctions of voice; imperative mode, denoting a command; present tense, denoting action in the present time; singular number and first person, agreeing with its subject-objective, "me," according to an idiom of the English language.

VIII. La Fayette visited Mount Vernon to see the tomb of Washington.

Visited is a verb, etc.; regular, etc.; Principal Parts—visit, visited, visiting, visited; active, etc.; transitive, etc., etc.

To see is a verb, because it denotes action; irregular, etc.; Principal Parts—see, saw, seeing, seen; transitive, etc.; active voice, because it represents action as exerted; infinitive mode, because the action is expressed in a general sense; present tense, etc.; without number or person.

IX. We are studying the verb.

Are studying is a verb, etc.; regular, etc.; Principal Parts—study, studied, studying, studied; active, etc.; transitive, etc.; active voice, etc.; indicative mode, etc.; present tense, etc.; in the progressive form, because it expresses continuous action; plural number and first person, etc.

X. We heard the whip-poor-will lamenting.

Heard is a verb, etc., etc.

Lamenting is a participle, derived from the verb *lament*; regular, etc.; Principal Parts—lament, lamented, lamenting, lamented; active voice; present tense, expressing continuous action; without number or person, having no subject.

ABRIDGED MODEL FOR PARSING THE VERB.

I. The Emancipation Proclamation was issued
by Lincoln.

Was issued is a verb; regular: issue, issued, issuing, issued; active; transitive; passive voice; indicative mode; past tense; singular number and third person.

II. Wake, harp of the North!

Wake is a verb; irregular: wake, woke, waking, waked; active; intransitive; without voice; imperative mode, etc.

REVIEW EXERCISES ON THE VERB.

I. State the Classification of the following verbs:

Abate, abide, add, allude, am, annex, answer, assail, become, begin, believe, bind, break, can, censure, complain, dare, do, enter, esteem, fan, fight, forego, forget, gain, give, go, guard, have, hide, hold, hunt, journey, know, last, live, lost, make, mix, mourn, name, note, open, partake, question, rain, risk, run, save, sink, take, turn, urge, venture, wind, yield.

II. State the Voice of the verbs in the following sentences:

1. He walks. 2. We understand. 3. It is believed. 4. They were detained. 5. The traveler lost his way. 6. The hunter returned next morning. 7. Hopes had been entertained of his recovery. 8. The State was admitted into the Union. 9. The people will celebrate the Fourth. 10. Nature hath her charms. 11. Lessons should be well recited. 12. Study with constant zeal. 13. Heed a father's counsels. 14. Fear nothing but falsehood.

III. State the Mode and Tense of the verbs in the following sentences:

1. Franklin invented the lightning-rod. 2. The rainbow spans the cloud. 3. At eve it shall be light. 4. If thou hadst been here, my brother had not died. 5. I will not be deceived. 6. The boy should accept the advice. 7. The hedgehog saw his shadow. 8. The news was brought by a postboy. 9. It is better to have striven in vain than never to have striven.

IV. State the Number and Person of the verbs in the following sentences:

1. He thinks. 2. The fox runs. 3. The man approaches. 4. The boys talk together. 5. You have every thing to gain. 6. When shall we arrive? 7. Why art thou surprised? 8. Men do not succeed by treachery. 9. We might have won the prize. 10. The fish would not be caught. 11. He holdeth ever his hands before his face.

EXERCISE IN PARSING.

Parse all the Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Verbs in the following examples:*

1. Echo repeats each voice she hears.
2. The mist rises, and the mountain is hidden from sight.
3. If you wish to know the truth, speak the truth.
4.

The noble Brutus

Hath told you Cæsar was ambitious:
If it were so, it was a grievous fault,
And grievously hath Cæsar answered it. — *Shakespeare*.
5. I chatter, chatter, as I flow
To join the brimming river;
For men may come and men may go,
But I go on forever. — *Tennyson*.
6. The mountains look on Marathon,
And Marathon looks on the sea;
And musing there an hour alone,
I dreamed that Greece might still be free;
For standing on the Persian's grave,
I could not deem myself a slave. — *Byron*.
7. Parrhasius stood gazing forgetfully
Upon his canvas. There Prometheus lay
Chained to the cold rocks of Mount Caucasus—
The vulture at his vitals, and the links
Of the lame Lemnian festering in his flesh;
And as the painter's mind felt through the dim
Rapt mystery, and plucked the shadows forth
With its far-reaching fancy, and with form
And color clad them, his fine, earnest eye
Flashed with a passionate fire, and the quick curl
Of his thin nostril and his quivering lip
Were like the wing'd god's, breathing from his flight.

—Willis.

*Nouns, Pronouns, and Adjectives, according to abridged models.

CHAPTER VII.

THE ADVERB.

I. CLASSIFICATION.

1. **Principle.**—The meaning of a verb may be modified by some other word.

EXAMPLES.—1. The rain falls *gently* on the flowers.

2. The wind sighed *mournfully* among the trees.

3. The children *greatly* rejoiced at the prospect.

4. We *then* passed through a causeway of stalactites and *afterwards* entered the Senate Chamber.

In these examples the words in Italics modify the meanings of the verbs in the respective sentences.

2. Words associated with verbs to modify their meanings are called **Adverbs**.

3. The meaning of *an adjective* may be modified by an adverb associated with it.

EXAMPLES.—1. The loss of time is *very* great.

2. The summer sky is *serenely* beautiful.

3. The stars of heaven are *eloquently* bright.

In these examples the words in Italics modify the meanings of the adjectives in the respective sentences.

Remark 1.—When an adverb modifies the meaning of an adjective, the adjective is generally joined with a verb *in the predicate of a sentence*; as, “is . . . great,” “is . . . beautiful,” etc., in the above examples. Thus the modifying power of an adverb (= to a *verb*) passes from the verb *to the adjective*.

Remark 2.—Participial adjectives may be modified by adverbs in the same manner as other adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *swiftly* flying years have gone.

2. We received a *hastily* written dispatch.

Here the adverbs “swiftly” and “hastily” modify the meanings of the participial adjectives “flying” and “written.”

4. The meaning of *an adverb* may be modified by another adverb associated with it.

EXAMPLES.—1. The story was *rather* slowly told.

2. We knew *too* well the meaning of his frown.

3. *Ever* thicker fell the snow-flakes.

Here the adverb “rather” modifies the meaning of the adverb “slowly;” the adverb “too” modifies the meaning of the adverb “well;” and the adverb “ever” modifies the meaning of the adverb “thicker.”

5. **DEFINITION.**—An adverb is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

6. Adverbs are classified according to *two principles* of division:

1. According to *the office* of the adverb in the sentence;

2. According to *the meaning* of the adverb.

7. According to their offices in sentences adverbs are divided into—I. SIMPLE; II. MODAL; III. RESPONSIVE; IV. INTERROGATIVE; V. CONJUNCTIVE; VI. CORRELATIVE.

I. A **Simple Adverb** is one that modifies the meaning of *the single word* with which it is associated in the sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. The rainbow is *always* beautiful.

2. We stood upon the *ever* shifting sands.

In the preceding examples the adverb "always" modifies the meaning of the single word "beautiful," and the adverb "ever" modifies the meaning of the single word "shifting."

II. A **Modal Adverb** is one that denotes whether the thought expressed in the sentence is *affirmative*, *negative*, or *contingent*.

EXAMPLES.—1. The messenger will *certainly* arrive.

2. The story is *not* believed.

3. This is *possibly* the last opportunity.

Here the adverb "certainly" gives *affirmative* character to the thought expressed in the sentence; the adverb "not" turns the sentence into a *negative*; and the adverb "possibly" makes the sentence *contingent*.

Remark.—The modifying influence of a modal adverb extends to *the whole sentence* in which it occurs.

III. A **Responsive Adverb** is one that may be used *in answering categorical questions*.*

EXAMPLES.—1. Did you come from home to-day? *Yes*.

2. Have you asked the teacher to be excused? *No*.

Here the adverbs "yes" and "no" are used as answers to the two categorical questions.

Remark 1.—Many questions are *not categorical*.

EXAMPLE.—What do you intend to do on reaching the city?

Remark 2.—A responsive adverb is equivalent to a complete sentence.

EXAMPLE.—Have you mastered your lesson? *Yes*.

Here "yes" = *I have mastered my lesson*.

LIST OF RESPONSIVES.—Ay, aye, nay, no, yea, yes.

*A *categorical* question is one that may be answered *yes* or *no*.

IV. An **Interrogative Adverb** is one used *to ask a question*.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Where* does truth live?

2. *When* will the passenger train arrive?

3. *Why* did you not recite to-day?

Here the adverbs “where,” “when,” and “why,” are used to introduce the questions.

Remark.—Interrogative adverbs are closely analogous to Interrogative pronouns, as may be seen from the interrogative letters *wh*, with which all such words begin.

LIST OF INTERROGATIVES.—When, whence, where, whereat, whereby, wherefore, wherein, why.

V. A **Conjunctive Adverb** is one that is used *to connect the parts of a sentence*.

EXAMPLES.—1. Come to the table *when* the feast is spread.

2. The flocks were grazing *where* the grass grew rankest.

3. Thou canst not tell *whence* it comes or *whither* it goes.

Here the adverbs “when,” “where,” “whence,” “whither,” are used to connect the parts of the sentences in which they respectively occur.

Remark.—Conjunctive adverbs, in addition to their connective office in sentences, also modify some particular word with which they are associated.

LIST OF CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.—As, before, since, than, when, whence, whenever, where, whereafter, whereat, whereby, wherefore, wherein, whereon, whereout, whereto, wherever, whether, whither, why.

VI. **Correlative Adverbs** are those which express *reciprocal relations in sentences*.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Then* men lived in huts; *now*, in palaces.

2. *So* live *as* to deserve praise.

Here the correlative adverbs “then . . . now” and “so . . . as” express reciprocal relations in the sentences.

LIST OF CORRELATIVE ADVERBS.—As . . . as; as . . . so; here . . . there; inasmuch . . . as; now . . . then; so . . . as; then . . . when; there . . . where; etc.

EXERCISES.

I. According to their **office** classify the Adverbs in the following sentences:

1. Time is *ever* flying.
2. *When* will the street be finished?
3. *As* we live, *so* shall we be.
4. Are the exercises correct? *Yes*.
5. Some pitched the tent, *while* others kindled a fire.

- II. 1. Write three sentences containing Simple Adverbs.
 2. Write three sentences containing Modal Adverbs.
 3. Write three sentences containing Conjunctive Adverbs.
 4. Write three sentences containing Correlative Adverbs.
 5. Write three sentences containing Responsive Adverbs.

8. According to their *meaning*, adverbs are divided into—I. ADVERBS OF TIME; II. ADVERBS OF PLACE; III. ADVERBS OF CAUSE; IV. ADVERBS OF MANNER; V. ADVERBS OF DEGREE; VI. NUMERAL ADVERBS; VII. EXPLETIVE ADVERBS.

I. **Adverbs of Time** are those which answer such questions as *When? How long? How often?*

- EXAMPLES.—1. *How often* do you lecture? Answer: *Daily*.
 2. *When* did mankind believe in signs? Answer: *Formerly*.

II. **Adverbs of Place** are those which answer such questions as *Where? Whither? In what place?*

- EXAMPLES.—1. *Where* is the air? Answer: *Every-where*.
 2. *Whither* were they going? Answer: *Abroad*.
 3. *In what place* shall we encamp? Answer: *Here*.

LIST OF ADVERBS OF PLACE.—Aboard, above, abroad, aloft, aloof, ashore, away, back, backwards, below, beyond, down, downwards, every-where, far, first, forth, forwards, hence, here, herein, hither, nowhere, somewhere, thence, there, therein, thither, whence, where, wherever, wherein, whither, yonder.

III. **Adverbs of Cause** are those which answer such questions as *Why? Wherefore?*

EXAMPLES.—1. We see; *therefore* we believe.

2. Let us, *then*, remember the poor.

Here the adverbs “therefore” and “then” give the *logical reasons why* we should believe and remember.

LIST OF ADVERBS OF CAUSE.—Since, then, therefore, wherefore, why.

IV. **Adverbs of Manner** are such as answer the question *How?*

EXAMPLES.—1. *How* shall we act? Answer: *Justly, truly*.

2. *How* did James recite? Answer: *Well, clearly*.

Remark.—Adverbs of manner are *very numerous*. They are nearly all formed by adding the syllable *ly* to adjectives.

EXAMPLES.—Brave, *bravely*; fair, *fairly*; great, *greatly*; late, *late**ly*; near, *nearly*; one, *only*; true, *truly*; whole, *wholly*; etc.

V. **Adverbs of Degree** are such as answer the question *How much?*

EXAMPLES.—1. *How much* should we seek after pleasure? Answer: *Scarcely* at all.

2. *How much* does petty care distress? Answer: *Too much*.

LIST OF ADVERBS OF DEGREE.—Almost, altogether, as, chiefly, enough, equally, even, greatly, little, more, most, much, nearly, only, partly, scarcely, somewhat, too, wholly, etc.

VI. **Numeral Adverbs** are those which answer the question *How many times?*

EXAMPLES.—1. He failed *twice*, and was *twice* successful.

2. *Fifty times* the tale was told.

Here the adverbs “twice” and “fifty times” tell *how often* the thing occurred.

LIST OF NUMERAL ADVERBS.*—Once, twice, thrice, five times, ten times, sixty times, etc.

VII. **Expletive Adverbs** are such as have no definite meaning, but are used *to introduce sentences*, according to the idiom of the English language.

EXAMPLES.—1. *There* is a river called the Tennessee.

2. *Well*, honor is the subject of my story.

Here the adverbs “there” and “well” have *no definite meaning*, being used merely as introductory words.

Remark 1.—Expletive adverbs are so called because they are used *to fill up* (Latin *explere*, to fill up) sentences.

LIST OF EXPLETIVES.—Aye, now, there, well, why, etc.

Remark 2.—Responsive and expletive adverbs are *independent of syntactical connection*.

Remark 3.—Certain adjuncts of frequent occurrence in sentences perform the office of adverbs, and are therefore called **Adverbial Adjuncts**.†

EXAMPLES.—1. *At length* we came to a turn in the road.

2. *In like manner* we shall gain the prize.

LIST OF ADVERBIAL ADJUNCTS.—As yet, at all, at best, at hand, at last, at length, at once, at times, by and by, by chance, by far, by turns, by no means, ever and anon, from above, from below, inasmuch as, in case, in like manner, in short, in that, in truth, no more, one by one, up and down, etc.

*To be carefully distinguished from the Numeral *Adjectives*. See p. 107, Rem. 2.

† An *Adjunct* is a short collection of words incomplete in sense—generally introduced with a preposition.

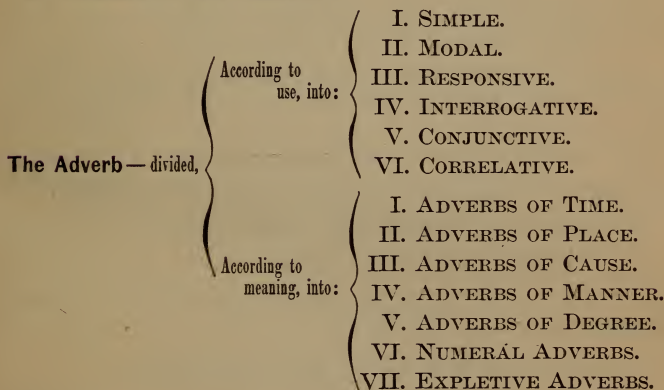
EXERCISES.

I. According to their **meaning** classify the Adverbs in the following sentences:

1. We shall know more *hereafter*.
2. The task was *well* and *quickly* done.
3. *There* waved the golden wheat; *there* bloomed the rose.
4. *There* was a philosopher called Pliny.

- II. 1. Write three sentences containing Adverbs of Time.
 2. Write three sentences containing Adverbs of Manner.
 3. Write three sentences containing Numeral Adverbs.

9. Scheme of the Adverb:



II. COMPARISON.

10. Principle. — Adverbs may be changed in form to denote *degrees* in their meaning.

I. That form of the adverb which expresses its meaning in an *absolute* sense is called the **Positive Degree**.

EXAMPLES.—1. The rain fell *fast*; the wind blew *loud*.

2. He waved his hands *wildly* in the air.

Here the adverbs “fast,” “loud,” and “wildly,” express their meanings in an absolute sense.

II. That form of the adverb which expresses its meaning in a *comparative* sense is called the **Comparative Degree**.

EXAMPLES.—1. The rain fell *faster* than before.

2. The house was *more plainly* visible.

Here the adverbs “faster” and “more plainly” express meanings in a *higher* sense than would be denoted by the positive forms *fast* and *plainly*.

3. After leaving the city we were *less* alarmed.

4. These arguments are *less easily* answered.

Here the adverbs “less” and “less easily” express meanings in a *lower* sense than is denoted by *little* and *easily*.

III. That form of the adverb which expresses a meaning in the *highest* or *lowest* sense is called the **Superlative Degree**.

EXAMPLES.—1. The tall man shouted *loudest*.

2. The beggar spoke *most humbly*.

Here the adverbs “loudest” and “most humbly” express meanings in the highest sense.

3. Against the wind the fire spread *least rapidly*.

Here the adverb “least rapidly” expresses a meaning in the *lowest* sense.

11. The comparative and superlative degrees of adverbs are formed in one of **two ways**:

1. By adding to the positive **er** for the comparative and **est** for the superlative; or,

2. By placing before the positive **more** or **less** for the comparative, and **most** or **least** for the superlative.

Remark 1.—A few adverbs are compared *in both ways*.

EXAMPLES.—Slow, *slow-er*, *slow-est*; or, slow, *more* slow, *most* slow.

Remark 2.—It will be seen that the comparison of adverbs is effected in *the same manner* as the comparison of *adjectives*.

Remark 3.—Several kinds of adverbs, such as adverbs of cause, numerals, and expletives, *do not admit of comparison*.

EXERCISES.

I. Compare the following Adverbs:*

Always, badly, boldly, calmly, deeply, duly, early, ever, fairly, fast, gravely, hence, high, how, humbly, ill, joyfully, loud, mainly, merely, never, not, only, purely, rarely, rudely, severely, slow, twice, urgently, well, whence, yesterday.

II. 1. Write five sentences containing adverbs in the Positive Degree.

2. Write five sentences containing adverbs in the Comparative Degree.

3. Write five sentences containing adverbs in the Superlative Degree.

III. PARSING.

ORDER OF PARSING THE ADVERB.

12. The order of parsing an adverb is:

1. An Adverb, and why;
2. Classification;
3. In what Degree;
4. Comparison;
5. What it modifies; and,
6. A Rule of Syntax.

* If any do not admit of comparison, let it be so stated.

MODEL FOR PARSING THE ADVERB.

I. The birds sing merrily.

Merrily is an adverb, because it modifies the meaning of a verb; simple, because it modifies a single word; an adverb of manner, answering the question *How?* in the positive degree: positive *merrily*, comparative *more merrily*, superlative *most merrily*; modifying the verb "sing," according to a rule of syntax which requires that an adverb shall modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

II. We then returned home.

Then is an adverb, because it modifies the meaning of a verb; simple, because it modifies a single word; an adverb of time, answering the question *When?* not admitting of comparison; modifying the verb "returned," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

III. Brave men shrink not from danger.

Not is an adverb, because it modifies the meaning of a verb; modal, because it renders the assertion negative; without comparison; modifying the verb "shrink," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

IV. The hay-makers hurry home when the storm threatens.

When is an adverb, because it modifies a verb; conjunctive, because it connects the two clauses of the sentence; an adverb of time; modifying the verb "threatens," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

V. Where moisture abounds, there vegetation flourishes.

Where . . . there are adverbs, because they are used to modify verbs; correlative, because they express a reciprocal rela-

tion; adverbs of place, answering the question *Where?* without comparison; modifying the verbs “abounds” and “flourishes,” according to a rule of syntax, etc.

VI. The flowers are very fragrant.

Very is an adverb, because it is used to modify an adjective; simple, modifying but a single word; an adverb of degree, answering the question *How much?* without comparison; modifying the adjective “fragrant,” according to a rule of syntax which requires that an adverb shall modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

VII. The work was pretty skillfully done.

Pretty is an adverb, because it modifies an adverb; simple, modifying but a single word; an adverb of degree; without comparison; modifying the adverb “skillfully,” according to a rule of syntax, etc.

VIII. A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush.

In the hand . . . in the bush are adverbial adjuncts performing the office of adverbs; adjuncts of place, answering the question *Where?* without comparison, etc.*

Remark.—After the full model for parsing the adverb has been mastered, an abridged model may be substituted.

ABRIDGED MODEL FOR PARSING THE ADVERB.

The story is truly wonderful.

Truly is an adverb; modal; an adverb of degree: truly, more truly, most truly; modifying the adjective “wonderful,” according to a rule of syntax, etc.

*This parsing of an adjunct must not be understood to take the place of the strictly etymological parsing of the expression word by word.

EXERCISE IN PARSING.

Parse all the Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, Verbs, and Adverbs in the following sentences:*

1. Once, twice, thrice the old bell solemnly sounded.
2. We calmly view the joys of yesterday.
3. And so never ending, but always descending,
Sounds and motions forever and ever are blending.
— *Southey*.
4. Only a sweet and virtuous soul,
Like seasoned timber, never gives;
But though the whole world turns to coal,
Then chiefly lives. — *Henbert*.
5. Never did sun more beautifully steep
In his first splendor valley, rock, or hill;
Ne'er saw I, never felt, a calm so deep!
The river glideth at his own sweet will. — *Wordsworth*.
6. What seemed particularly odd to Rip was, that though these folks were evidently amusing themselves, yet they maintained the gravest faces, the most mysterious silence, and were, withal, the most melancholy party of pleasure he had ever witnessed. — *Irving*.
7. Presently my soul grew stronger;
Hesitating then no longer,
“Sir,” said I, “or madam, truly
Your forgiveness I implore;
But the fact is, I was napping,
And so gently you came rapping,
And so faintly you came tapping,
Tapping at my chamber door,
That I scarce was sure I heard you.”—
Here I opened wide the door;—
Darkness there, and nothing more! — *Poe*.

* The Nouns, Pronouns, Adjectives, and Verbs, according to *abridged models*.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE PREPOSITION.

I. CLASSIFICATION.

1. DEFINITION.—A **Preposition** is a word used to express the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word.

EXAMPLES.—1. The poet writes *in* rhyme.

2. The plowman turns the sod *of* the prairie.

Here the preposition “*in*” expresses the relation of the noun “rhyme” to the verb “writes;” and the preposition “*of*,” the relation of the noun “prairie” to the noun “sod.”

3. I asked the stranger to go *with* me.

4. The old wrens flew away; the young ones flew *after* them.

Here the prepositions “*with*” and “*after*” express the relations of the pronouns “me” and “them” to the verbs “go” and “flew,” respectively.

Remark 1.—The noun or pronoun following the preposition is said to be *the object* of the preposition.

Remark 2.—The object of a preposition may be a *verbal noun*.

EXAMPLES.—1. The postboy was ABOUT *to leave*.

2. She did nothing BUT (to) *cry*.

Remark 3.—Sometimes the object of a preposition is a *participial noun*.

EXAMPLES.—1. They made preparations FOR *returning*.

2. We learn to wait BY *waiting*.

Remark 4.—Sometimes the object of a preposition is a *clause*.

EXAMPLES.—1. We were debating **ON** *what we should do to regain the road*.

2. We hoped to agree **ABOUT** *who ought to receive the appointment*.

2. Prepositions are divided into **six classes**: I. **SIMPLE**; II. **DERIVATIVE**; III. **COMPOUND**; IV. **PARTICIPIAL**; V. **VERBAL**; VI. **ADJECTIVAL**.

I. The Simple Prepositions are: At, after, but, by, down, far, for, from, in, of, off, on, over, past, round, since, till, to, though, under, up, with.

II. The Derivative Prepositions are formed by prefixing **a** or **be** to other simple words. The list is as follows: Abroad, above, about, across, against, along, amid, amidst, among, amongst, around, athwart; before, behind, below, beneath, beside, besides, between, betwixt, beyond.

Remark.—The meaning of the prefix **a** is *at* or *on*; the meaning of **be** is *by*; as, *Between* = *by twain*—that is, *by two*.

III. The Compound Prepositions are formed by uniting two prepositions or a preposition and an adverb. The following is the list: Into, out of, throughout, toward, towards, until, unto, underneath, upon, within, without.

IV. The Participial Prepositions are those having the forms of participles. The following is the list: Barring, bating, concerning, during, excepting, notwithstanding, pending, regarding; respecting, touching.

V. Two verbs in the imperative mood have the office of prepositions, and are called **Verbal Prepositions**. They are: *Save*, *except*.

VI. A few words, generally used as adjectives, have sometimes the force of prepositions, and are called **Adjectival Prepositions**. They are: *Near*, *next*, *nigh*, *opposite*.

Remark 1.—Certain of the above prepositions are sometimes used as *conjunctions*, others as *adverbs*.

EXAMPLES.—1. They were all present *but* (= except) Tom.

2. We went *along* the river bank.

Here the word “but,” generally a conjunction, and the word “along,” generally an adverb, are used as prepositions.

Remark 2.—The preposition, being merely a *relational word*, has no grammatical properties.

II. PARSING.

ORDER OF PARSING THE PREPOSITION.

3. The order of parsing a preposition is :

1. A Preposition, and why ;
2. The Relation which it expresses ; and,
3. A Rule of Syntax.

MODEL FOR PARSING THE PREPOSITION.

I. The fleet reindeer is found in Lapland.

In is a preposition, because it expresses the relation of the noun “Lapland” to the verb “is found,” according to a rule of syntax which requires that a preposition shall express the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word.

II. Brevity is the soul of wit.

Of is a preposition, because it expresses the relation of the noun “wit” to the noun “soul,” according to a rule, etc.

III. The boys are fond of play.

Of is a preposition, because it shows the relation of the noun “play” to the adjective “fond,” according to a rule, etc.

CHAPTER IX.

THE CONJUNCTION.

I. CLASSIFICATION.

1. DEFINITION.—A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect words, sentences, or like parts of sentences.

EXAMPLES.—1. Honor *and* shame from no condition rise.

2. Rule *or* ruin, is the motto of the mean.

Here the conjunction “and” connects *the words* “honor” and “shame;” and the conjunction “or” connects *the words* “rule” and “ruin.”

3. Out of the yard *and* up the street he rushed.

Here the conjunction “and” connects *the like parts of sentences*, “out of the yard” and “up the street.”

4. We went to Philadelphia *because* we desired to see the tomb of Franklin.

Here the conjunction “because” connects *the two sentences*.

Remark.—Sometimes conjunctions are used to *introduce* sentences.

EXAMPLES.—1. *And* now let us consider the fourth and last argument.

2. *That* Edison is a great inventor, can not be doubted.

3. *So* the story broke off in the middle.

Here the conjunction “and” introduces the first sentence, the conjunction “that” the second, and the conjunction “so” the third.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CONJUNCTIONS.

Accordingly,	Consequently,	Likewise,	Still,
Also,	Either,	Moreover,	Than,
Although,	Except,	Neither,	Then,
And,	For,	Nor,	Thence,
As,	Further,	Notwithstanding,	Therefore,
Because,	Hence,	Only,	Though,
Both,	However,	Otherwise,	Whereas,
But,	Lest,	So,	Wherefore.

2. Conjunctions are divided into the following **four classes**: I. COÖRDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS; II. SUBORDINATIVE CONJUNCTIONS; III. CORRELATIVE CONJUNCTIONS; IV. COMPOUND CONJUNCTIONS.

I. Coördinative Conjunctions.

3. Coördinative Conjunctions are those which connect *like sentences* or *like parts of sentences*.

EXAMPLES.—1. Lilies *and* violets are blooming together.

2. Make the sketch with pencil *or* crayon.

Here the coördinative conjunctions “and” and “or” connect the nouns *in like relation* in the sentences.

3. He spent the day in wading creeks *and* gathering nuts.

Here the coördinative conjunction “and” connects “wading creeks” and “gathering nuts”—*like parts of sentences*.

4. The merchant fixed a price, *but* the man refused to buy.

5. The gentlemen entered *and* the ladies rose to greet them.

Here the coördinative conjunctions “but” and “and” connect *the like sentences* between which they stand.

4. Coördinative conjunctions are divided into *three classes*:

1. Such as denote simply *the addition of one idea to another*—called **Copulative Conjunctions**.

The principal copulative conjunctions are: Also, and, further, moreover.

2. Such as denote *an opposition or contrast of the ideas which they connect*—called **Disjunctive Conjunctions**.

The principal disjunctive conjunctions are: Although, but, either, else, except, however, lest, neither, nor, notwithstanding, or, otherwise, still, than, through, whereas, yet.

3. Such as denote an *inference or consequence*—called **Illative Conjunctions**.

The principal illative conjunctions are: Because, consequently, for, hence, then, thence, therefore, wherefore.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out and classify the Conjunctions in Longfellow's *Psalm of Life*.

2. Write a list of the principal Coördinative Conjunctions.

3. Write three sentences containing Copulative Conjunctions.

4. Write three sentences containing Disjunctive Conjunctions.

5. Write three sentences containing Illative Conjunctions.

II. Subordinative Conjunctions.

5. Subordinative Conjunctions are those which connect *the dependent with the independent* parts of a sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. We shall go nutting *IF the weather is fair*.

2. The boys rejoiced *BECAUSE the lesson was ended*.

3. They put up a box *THAT the wrens might have a nest*.

Here the subordinative conjunctions "if," "because," and "that," connect the dependent clauses with the principal parts of the sentences. The dependent clauses are set in *Italics*.

6. Subordinative conjunctions are divided into *four classes*:

1. Such as denote the *reason* or *condition* on which something depends—called **Causal Conjunctions**.

The principal causal conjunctions are: As, because, for, if, lest, since, that (= in order that), though, whereas.

2. Such as denote *time*—called **Temporal Conjunctions**.

The principal temporal conjunctions are: After, before, ere, then, until, when, while, whilst.

3. Such as denote *place* or *motion*—called **Locative Conjunctions**.

The principal locative conjunctions are: Thence, whence; there, where; thither, whither.

4. Such as denote *manner* or *degree*—called **Modal Conjunctions**.

The principal modal conjunctions are: As, how, as if, so as.

EXERCISES.

1. Write a list of the principal Subordinative Conjunctions.
2. Illustrate the use of Causal, Temporal, Locative, and Modal Conjunctions with two sentences each.

III. Correlative Conjunctions.

7. Correlative Conjunctions are such as denote a *common relation* of the parts which they connect.

EXAMPLES.—1. Aristides was *both* just *and* wise.

2. We must *either* hasten our march *or* return by night.

3. *Though* reputation withers, *yet* character remains.

Here the correlative conjunctions “both . . . and,” “either . . .

or,” and “though...yet,” denote that the parts which they connect are in a common relation.

The principal correlative conjunctions are: As...as, as...so, both...and, either...or, if...then, neither...nor, notwithstanding...yet, or...or, so...as, though...yet, whether...or.

Remark.—Both coördinative and subordinative conjunctions may be used as correlatives.

EXERCISE.

Write five sentences containing Correlative Conjunctions.

IV. Compound Conjunctions.

8. Compound Conjunctions are combinations of words having the force and office of conjunctions.

EXAMPLES.—1. He acted *as if* he were afraid of his shadow.

2. Umbrellas were taken, *inasmuch as* it threatened rain.

3. The soldier, *as well as* the statesman, was applauded.

Here the expressions “as if,” “inasmuch as,” and “as well as,” are compound conjunctions.

The principal compound conjunctions are: As if, as well as, but also, but likewise, notwithstanding that, not only.

Remark.—It will be seen that many of the conjunctions are also used as simple and conjunctive *adverbs*.

EXAMPLES.—1. *When* will vacation come?

2. The lion roars *when* the keeper feeds him.

3. He told us a marvelous story, *when* nothing had occurred.

In the first of these examples “when” is a simple adverb; in the second, “when” is a conjunctive adverb; in the third, “when” is a conjunction.

EXERCISE.

Write five sentences containing Compound Conjunctions.

II. PARSING.

ORDER OF PARSING THE CONJUNCTION.

9. The order of parsing a conjunction is:

1. A Conjunction, and why;
2. Coördinative, Subordinative, Correlative, or Compound, and why;
3. The Parts which it connects; and,
4. A Rule of Syntax.

MODEL FOR PARSING THE CONJUNCTION.

I. Lions and tigers are found in the jungles of India.

And is a conjunction, because it is used to connect the parts of a sentence; coördinative, because the parts connected are in like relation; connecting the words "lions" and "tigers," according to a rule of syntax which requires that conjunctions shall connect words or sentences.

II. The trees were covered with blossoms, but an untimely frost destroyed them.

But is a conjunction, because it is used to connect sentences; coördinative, because the sentences are in like relation; connecting the two sentences between which it stands, according to a rule of syntax which requires that conjunctions shall connect words or sentences.

III. The work was nearly finished when a boy came running to the field.

When is a conjunction, because it is used to connect sentences; subordinate, because it connects a dependent with an independent clause; connecting the sentence which follows with that which precedes the conjunction, according to a rule of syntax which requires, etc.

IV. So live as to merit praise.

So . . . as are conjunctions, because they are used to connect the parts of a sentence; correlative, because they express a common relation of the parts connecting "live" with "to merit praise," according to a rule of syntax, etc.

V. The man showed energy as well as foresight.

As well as is a conjunction, etc.; compound, being a combination of words having the office of a conjunction, etc.

EXERCISE IN PARSING.

Parse all the words in the following sentences:*

1. Not truth, but falsehood, fears the open day.
2. Man often strives in vain because his plan is foolish.
3. The poet sees palaces and giants in the clouds, whereas the common eye sees only the clouds themselves.

4. Scrooge went to bed again and thought, and thought, and thought it over and over and over. — *Dickens*.

5. It was at Rome, on the 15th of October, 1764, as I sat musing amidst the ruins of the Capitol, while the barefooted friars were singing vespers in the temple of Jupiter, that the idea of writing the decline and fall of the city first started to my mind. — *Gibbon*.

6. And I have loved thee, Ocean! and my joy
 Of youthful sports was on thy breast to be
 Borne, like thy bubbles, onward: from a boy
 I wantoned with thy breakers—they to me
 Were a delight; and if the freshening sea
 Made them a terror, 't was a pleasing fear,
 For I was, as it were, a child of thee,
 And trusted to thy billows far and near,
 And laid my hand upon thy mane—as I do here. — *Byron*.

* Conjunctions according to *full model*.

CHAPTER X.

THE INTERJECTION.

1. DEFINITION.—An **Interjection** is a word used to express a simple emotion of the mind.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Oh*, bitter day! that brings the loss of trust.

2. This deed, *alas*! can never be forgiven.

3. My pretty pets have flown away, *ah*! me.

Here the words “oh,” “alas,” and “ah,” are used to express simple emotions of the speaker.

Remark 1.—*Simple* emotions are in the nature of *ideas*, and are expressed by single words—interjections. Complex emotions are in the nature of *thoughts*, and are generally expressed by *exclamatory sentences*.

Remark 2.—The word “interjection” means *thrown between*; that is, thrown between the other words of a sentence. But the interjection may stand at *the beginning or end* of a sentence, as well as between the component parts.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL INTERJECTIONS.

Adieu,	Begone,	Hail,	Huzza,
Ah,	Bravo,	Halloo,	Lo,
Aha,	Farewell,	Hark,	O,
Ahoy,	Faugh,	Heigh-ho,	Oh,
Alack,	Fie,	Hey,	Pshaw,
Alas,	Fudge,	Hist,	Tush,
Avast,	Good-by,	Ho,	Welladay,
Avant,	Ha,	Hurra,	Zounds.

Remark 1.—Other parts of speech, especially verbs, nouns, and pronouns, may be used as interjections.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Behold!* the shadows lengthen.

2. *Shame!* that a son should break his mother's heart.

3. *What!* does the traitor still enter the Senate House?

Here the verb "behold," the noun "shame," and the pronoun "what," are used as interjections.

Remark 2.—On the other hand, interjections are sometimes used as nouns.

EXAMPLE.—He was careful to utter an *ah* or two.

Here the word "ah" is used as a noun.

Remark 3.—From the nature of the interjection it will be seen that this part of speech *has no syntactical connection* with the rest of the sentence.

IV. PARSING.

ORDER OF PARSING THE INTERJECTION.

2. The order of parsing an interjection is:

1. An Interjection, and why;
2. A Rule of Syntax.

MODEL FOR PARSING THE INTERJECTION.

Hark! the trumpet sounds!

Hark is an interjection, because it is used to express a simple emotion of the speaker; having no grammatical dependence, according to a rule of syntax which requires that an interjection shall be without syntactical connection.

Remark.—All interjections may be parsed by this model.

EXERCISE IN PARSING.

Parse all the words in the following sentences :

1. Lo ! Cæsar is afraid.
2. Hist ! I hear the sound of footsteps in the dark.
3. Alas ! for the rarity
Of Christian charity
Under the sun.—*Hood*.
4. Break, break, break,
At the foot of thy crags, O Sea !
But the tender grace of a day that is dead
Will never come back to me.—*Tennyson*.
5. What ! will the aspiring blood of Lancaster
Sink in the ground ?—*Shakespeare*.
6. Clang, clang ! the massive anvils ring ;
Clang, clang ! a hundred hammers swing ;
Like the thunder-rattle of a tropic sky
The mighty blows still multiply,—
Clang, clang !
Say, brothers of the dusky brow,
What are your strong arms forging now ?—*Anonymous*.
7. The fiery-footed barb
That pounds the pampas, and the lily-bells
That hang above the brooks, present the world
With no apology for being there.—*Holland*.
8. The Alleghanies, as they listened, opened their barriers
that the loud call might pass through to the hardy riflemen
on the Holston, the Watauga, and the French Broad. Ever
renewing its strength, powerful enough even to create a com-
monwealth, it breathed its inspiring word to the first settlers
of Kentucky ; so that hunters who made their halt in the
matchless valley of the Elkhorn, commemorated the nine-
teenth day of April by naming their encampment LEXING-
TON.—*Bancroft*.

PART II.

SYNTAX.

CHAPTER XI.

FIRST PRINCIPLES.

1. SYNTAX is the science which treats of the relations of words to each other in sentences.

Remark 1.—As an Art, Syntax treats of constructing sentences according to the Laws and Usage of the English Language.

Remark 2.—It will be seen that Syntax *as an art* is based on Syntax *as a science*; the former is the *practical application* of the latter.

Remark 3.—By “constructing sentences” is meant the process of putting together words and combinations of words in such manner as *to express complete thoughts*.

Remark 4.—Mere combinations or assemblages of words do not constitute sentences. The words must be put into a certain logical relation with each other in order to become a sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. Mountains bears and ferocious other are Sierra Nevada in the found animals grizzly.

Here the assemblage of words *expresses no thought*, and therefore *does not constitute a sentence*.

2. Grizzly bears and other ferocious animals are found in the Sierra Nevada mountains.

Here the same words are so arranged as to have *a logical relation* to each other. They express *a thought*, and therefore constitute *a sentence*.

2. Language is an assemblage of sentences in proper relation with each other. (See pages 7, 8.)

Extract.—Rip Van Winkle threw himself on a green knoll that crowned the brow of the precipice. For some time he lay musing on the scene. Evening was gradually advancing; the mountains began to throw their long blue shadows over the valleys. He saw that it would be dark before he could reach the village, and he heaved a heavy sigh when he thought of encountering Dame Van Winkle's wrath.—*Irving*.

This paragraph is made up of *ten sentences*:*

1. Rip Van Winkle threw himself on a knoll; 2. That crowned the brow of the precipice; 3. He lay musing; 4. Evening was advancing; 5. The mountains began to throw their shadows; 6. He saw; 7. It would be dark; 8. He could reach the village; 9. He heaved a sigh; 10. He thought of encountering Dame Van Winkle's wrath.

All written or spoken language may in like manner be resolved into sentences.

EXERCISE.

Select three paragraphs and resolve them into sentences.

3. **Principle 1.**—Every sentence may be separated logically into the parts of which it is composed.

EXAMPLES.—1. Stars twinkle.

Here the sentence consists of two parts—the noun “stars” and the verb “twinkle.”

* For difference between *sentences* and *clauses*, see page .

2. The moon shines brightly.

Here the sentence consists of four parts: two *principal* parts—namely, the noun “moon” and the verb “shines;” and two *subordinate* parts—namely, the article “the” and the adverb “brightly.”

3. Black haws grow in the forest.

Here the sentence consists of two principal parts—the noun “haws” and the verb “grow;” and of two subordinate parts—the adjective “black” and the adverbial clause “in the forest.”

The adverbial clause “in the forest” consists of three parts: the preposition “in,” the article “the,” and the noun “forest.”

4. The logical resolution of a sentence into the parts which compose it is called **Analysis**.

5. **Principle 2.**—Words, phrases, and clauses may be put together in such a way as to constitute sentences.

EXAMPLES.—1. The words, The of America system is public of hope best her schools,—may be so put together as to constitute this sentence: The best hope of America is her system of public schools.

2. The words, For I or the sink am swim or live survive Declaration perish or die,—may be so put together as to constitute this sentence: Sink or swim, live or die, survive ish, I am for the Declaration.

6. The process of putting words together so as to constitute sentences, is called **Synthesis**.

7. Syntax, or the Science which treats of the Relations of Words, will therefore be considered under **two heads**:

I. ANALYSIS—Which treats of the logical resolution of sentences into the parts of which they are composed.

II. SYNTHESIS—Which treats of the putting together of words, phrases, and clauses, so as to constitute sentences.

CHAPTER XII.

ANALYSIS.

I. CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

1. **Analysis** is the logical resolution of sentences into the parts of which they are composed.

2. Sentences are divided, according to their *signification*, into **four classes**: I. DECLARATIVE; II. INTERROGATIVE; III. IMPERATIVE; IV. EXCLAMATORY.

I. Those sentences in which action or being is simply *asserted* of some subject are called **Declarative Sentences**.

EXAMPLES.—1. The flowers *fade*.

2. Prosperity *gladdens* the human heart.

3. A resolute will *conquers* difficulties.

In these sentences the verbs “fade,” “gladdens,” and “conquers,” simply assert action of their respective subjects, and the sentences are therefore Declarative sentences.

II. Those sentences which are used *to ask questions* are called **Interrogative Sentences**.

EXAMPLES.—1. What is the population of the city?

2. Did you ever explore a coal mine?

3. Was the story true or false?

These sentences, being in the form of questions, are called Interrogative sentences.

Remark.—Many sentences are declarative *in form*, but interrogative *in meaning*.

EXAMPLES.—1. He thinks himself well again?

2. The visitors will return to-morrow?

These sentences, though declarative in form, are interrogative in meaning.

III. Those sentences which are used to express *command*, *exhortation*, or *entreaty*, are called **Imperative Sentences**.

EXAMPLES.—1. Come to the festal board to-night.

2. Forget not the sorrows of the poor.

3. Let me be a sharer in the strife.

These sentences express command or entreaty, and are Imperative sentences.

Remark.—All sentences containing verbs in the imperative mode (see page 128) are imperative sentences.

IV. Those sentences which are used to express thoughts as *exclamations*, are called **Exclamatory Sentences**.

EXAMPLES.—1. How soars the eagle through the clouds!

2. What reckless folly marked the young man's course!

Here the thoughts are expressed as exclamations, and the sentences are Exclamatory sentences.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out in Gray's *Elegy* the four kinds of sentences.

2. Write five Declarative sentences.

3. Write five Interrogative sentences.

4. Write three Imperative sentences.

5. Write three Exclamatory sentences.

3. Sentences are divided, according to their *form*, into three classes: I. SIMPLE; II. COMPLEX; III. COMPOUND.

I. A simple sentence is one in which there are but *two parts*: first, that of which something is affirmed—called **the**

Subject; and, secondly, that which is asserted of the subject—called the **Predicate**.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Flowers* fade.

2. *Fishes* swim.

3. *Men* are talking.

4. *Snow* is white.

5. *Goats* are animals.

6. *Cities* have been destroyed.

Here the italicized words are the subjects, and the remaining parts the predicates, of the respective sentences.

Remark.—It will be seen that the predicate sometimes consists of *one word*, and sometimes of *more than one word*.

II. A complex sentence is one consisting of a *principal* and a *subordinate sentence* united in a single statement.

EXAMPLES.—1. I came that *I might see*.

2. The ladies were frightened when *they entered the cavern*.

3. We sang while *the sleigh-bells jingled*.

Each of these sentences consists of a principal and a subordinate sentence. The principal sentences are “I came,” “the ladies were frightened,” and “we sang;” the italicized parts are the subordinate sentences.

Remark.—It will be seen that in complex sentences the subordinate part is attached to the principal part by one of the *subordinative conjunctions*. (See pages 191, 192.)

III. A compound sentence is one consisting of *two or more simple or complex sentences* united by a *coördinative conjunction*. (See page 190.)

EXAMPLES.—1. Spring came, and the birds sang again.

2. Morning returned, but morning brought no day.

3. He reads no books, yet claims superior wisdom.

4. We knew that he had deceived us, but still we trusted him.

In examples 1 and 2, simple sentences are joined by the co-

ordinative conjunctions “and” and “but;” in example 3, the subject of the verb “claims” (the pronoun *he* understood) is omitted, and the two simple sentences are joined by “yet;” in example 4, the first sentence—a complex sentence,—and the second—a simple sentence—are joined by the conjunction “but.” All four of the examples are compound sentences.

Remark 1.—In many compound sentences there is but one verb with two or more subjects—thus: Charley and Tom have gone to market = Charley has gone and Tom has gone; Fields and pastures are covered with snow = Fields are covered and pastures are covered, etc.

Remark 2.—In many compound sentences there is but one subject with two or more predicates—thus: I came and conquered = I came and I conquered; The man rose, stood a moment, and went out = The man rose, the man stood a moment, and the man went out.

Remark 3.—Some compound sentences have two or more subjects *and* two or more common predicates—thus: Men, women, and children turned pale, cried out, and ran; Days, weeks, and months come, go, and are forgotten.

EXERCISES.

I. Classify, according to *signification* and *form*, the following sentences:

1. Industry is the road to wealth.
2. Grace was in all her steps.
3. Did this in Cæsar seem ambitious?
4. I knew that the treasure was hidden in a thicket.
5. He who climbs a precipice must not look below.
6. We returned to the river, but the boats were gone.
7. She gave me of the tree and I did eat.

- II. 1. Write five Simple sentences.
2. Write five Complex sentences.
3. Write five Compound sentences.

II. ELEMENTS.

4. The ultimate parts of which a sentence is composed are called its **Elements**.

5. The elements of which a sentence is composed are of **two kinds**:

I. Those parts which are necessary to the existence of the sentence—called **Essential Elements**;

II. Those which are not necessary to the existence of a sentence—occurring in some sentences, and not in others—called **Accidental Elements**.

EXAMPLES.—1. In the fall the *birds fly* southward.

2. The *name* of Washington *will ever be remembered*.

3. All *men desire* happiness.

In these examples the italicized words are essential elements; that is, they are the parts without which the sentences could not exist. All other words in the examples are accidental elements; that is, they are parts not necessary to the existence of the sentences.

6. The Essential elements of a sentence are *two in number*:

I. That of which something is affirmed in the sentence—called **the Subject**.

II. That which is affirmed of the subject—called **the Predicate**.

7. The Accidental elements of a sentence are of *four kinds*:

I. Those parts of the sentence which denote the object of the action expressed by a verb—called **Objective Elements**.

EXAMPLE.—The farmer gathers *the harvest*.

Here the noun "harvest" denotes the object of the action

expressed by the verb “gathers,” and is the objective element in the sentence.

II. Those parts of a sentence which modify or limit the meaning of some other parts—called **Modifying Elements**.

EXAMPLE.—The merry girls went laughingly to school.

Here the adjective “merry,” qualifying the noun “girls,” and the adverb “laughingly,” qualifying the verb “went,” are modifying elements in the sentence. The expression “to school” is also a modifying element limiting the meaning of the verb “went.”

The modifying elements in sentences are of *two kinds*:

1. **ADJECTIVE ELEMENTS**,—or those which modify or limit the meaning of some noun or pronoun in the sentence; and,
2. **ADVERBIAL ELEMENTS**,—or those which modify the meaning of some verb, adverb, or adjective in the sentence.

III. Those parts of sentences which are used to join other parts together—called **Connective Elements**.

EXAMPLES.—1. The man entered the car *and* sat down.

2. The home *of* Irving was *on* the Hudson.

Here the conjunction “and” and the prepositions “of” and “on” are used to join the parts of the sentences, and are connective elements.

IV. Those parts of sentences which have no syntactical relation with other parts—called **Independent Elements**.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Alas!* how much of human effort is wasted!

2. *O King,* live forever!

Here the word “alas” and the expression “O King” have no syntactical relations, and are independent elements in the respective sentences.

Remark.—The above classification of elements is according to their *meaning*.

EXERCISES.

I. Point out the various Elements in the following sentences :

1. The patient oxen drag the cedar logs.
2. At evening the dull-eyed bat flaps drowsily his wings.
3. St. Agnes' eve,—ah ! bitter chill it was.

II. 1. Write three sentences illustrating Essential elements.

2. Illustrate Adjective elements and Adverbial elements with three sentences each.

3. Write three sentences containing Objective elements.

4. Write two sentences containing Independent elements.

8. As it regards their *form*, elements are divided into three classes :

1. Those elements which consist of *a single word*—called **Word Elements**;

2. Those which consist of *a collection of words not making complete sense*—called **Phrase** or **Adjunct Elements**; and,

3. Those which consist of a collection of words making *complete sense*—called **Clause Elements**.

EXAMPLES OF WORD ELEMENTS.—The lamp burns brightly; Too much wealth corrupts society; The soldiers guarded the camp; All men are created equal.

In these sentences all the elements are word elements.

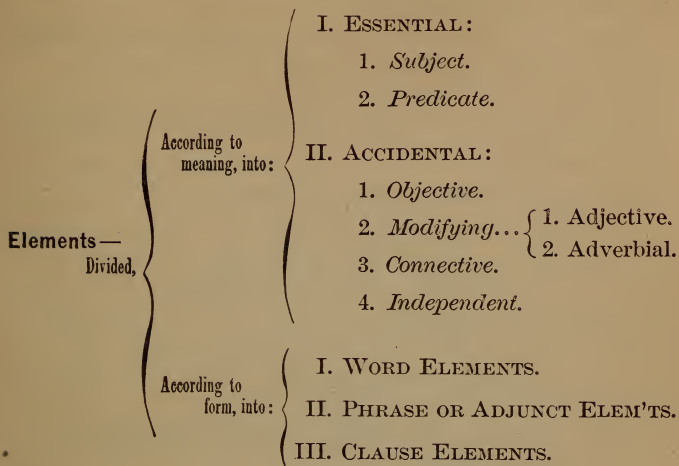
EXAMPLES OF PHRASE OR ADJUNCT ELEMENTS.—We arrived *in the night*; *With the break of day* the two travelers arose and started *for the West*; *Alarmed at the prospect*, we could not proceed; We were all eager *to reach the Highlands*.

Here the italicized parts are phrase or adjunct elements.

EXAMPLES OF CLAUSE ELEMENTS.—The man *who lives on hope* shall die of despair; He expected that *help would arrive*; *Why we were detained*, nobody could tell us.

In these sentences the italicized parts are clause elements.

9. Scheme of Elements:



III. THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

10. A Simple Sentence is one which contains but *one subject* and *one predicate*.

EXAMPLES.—1. The lark sings

2. The bees are swarming.

3. The merchant sells goods.

4. Brevity is the soul of wit.

5. Forests of pine abound in Minnesota.

6. The sad evidences of the wreck were seen on all sides.

Each of these sentences has but one subject and one predicate, and is therefore a simple sentence.

11. The Subject of a sentence is that of which something is predicated. (See pages 66, 118.) 203-204

EXAMPLES.—1. A *rose* is blooming in the garden.

2. *Africa* has vast deserts of sand.

Here “*rose*” and “*Africa*” denote the things of which something is predicated, and are the subjects of the sentences.

12. According to its *form*, the subject of a simple sentence is either—

1. A **noun**—that is, the name of some thing;
2. A **pronoun**—that is, a word used for a noun;
3. An **infinitive**—that is, the verbal noun;
4. A **present participle**—used as a noun; or,
5. Some **sign** or **character**—the name of which is a noun.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *days* grow short in winter.

2. *He* finished the work yesterday.

3. *To die* is not always a calamity.

4. The *passing* of counterfeits is forbidden by law.

5. + *signifies* addition.

In these simple sentences the italicized words and the sign + illustrate the five kinds of subjects.

13. The Predicate of a sentence is that which is asserted of the subject. (See page 204.) 118-203

14. According to its *form*, the predicate of a simple sentence is either—

1. A **verb** only;
2. A **verb** (generally the *copula*) and a **noun**; or,
3. A **verb** (generally the *copula*) and an **adjective**.*

EXAMPLES.—1. The memory of the patriots still *lives*.

2. Prince Bismarek *is* a *statesman*.

* In *Logic* the copula is not a part of the predicate. The sentence, *The bird flies*, is not in the syllogistic form until written thus: *The bird is flying*. But in *Grammar*, which has to do with the *forms* of words, *The bird flies* is a correct expression: “*flies*” is the predicate, and it includes the *copula*, being equal to *is flying*.

3. The clouds at sunset *are beautiful*.

In these sentences the italicized words illustrate the three kinds of simple predicates.

15. According to its *meaning* the subject of a simple sentence is of **two kinds**:

I. **The grammatical subject**—that is, the single word or expression of which something is predicated, without the parts which modify it.

II. **The logical subject**—that is, the grammatical subject, together with its modifying parts.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *trees* cast their leaves in autumn.

2. The *flocks* return to the fold at night-fall.

3. The *bell* was heard tinkling in the forest.

Here the nouns “trees,” “flocks,” and “bell,” are the grammatical subjects of the respective sentences.

4. *The maple-trees on the hill* have cast their leaves.

5. *The shepherd's bleating flocks* return to the fold.

6. *The tinkling bell of silvery tone* was heard.

Here the italicized parts are the logical subjects of the respective sentences.

Remark 1.—If there are no modifying parts in the subject of a sentence, then the grammatical subject and the logical subject *are identical*.

EXAMPLE.—*Men* do not gather figs of thistles.

Here the noun “men” is both the grammatical and the logical subject of the sentence.

Remark 2.—If there are modifying parts in the subject of a sentence, then *some particular word or expression* in the logical subject will be the grammatical subject.

EXAMPLE.—The worst *kind* of an enemy is a pretended friend.

In the preceding example the grammatical subject is "kind," and the logical subject, "the worst kind of an enemy."

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the Logical and Grammatical subjects in the Exercises on page 117.

2. Write five sentences, underscoring the Grammatical subjects.

3. Write five sentences, underscoring the Logical subjects.

16. According to its *meaning* the predicate of a simple sentence is of **two kinds**:

I. **The grammatical predicate**—that is, the single word or expression which asserts something of the subject.

II. **The logical predicate**—that is, the grammatical predicate, together with its modifying parts.

EXAMPLES.—1. The flowers of spring *wither*.

2. The steamer from Liverpool *has arrived*.

3. Daniel Webster *was* an orator.

In these examples "wither," "has arrived," and "was orator," are the grammatical predicates of the sentences.

4. The cry *was plainly heard in the street*.

5. We *reached the Coliseum at sunset*.

6. The stranger *was agreeably surprised at his reception*.

In these examples the italicized parts are the logical predicates of the sentences.

Remark 1.—If there are no modifying parts in the predicate of a sentence, then the grammatical predicate and the logical predicate are *identical*.

EXAMPLE.—The strongest animals *survive*.

Here the verb "survive" is both the grammatical and the logical predicate of the sentence.

Remark 2.—If there are modifying parts in the predicate of a sentence, then some particular word or expression in the logical predicate will be the grammatical predicate.

EXAMPLE.—The tall trees *swayed* back and forth in the storm.

Here the grammatical predicate is “swayed,” and the logical predicate is “swayed back and forth in the storm.”

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the Grammatical and the Logical predicates in the Exercises on page 76⁷⁷.
2. Write five sentences, underscoring the Grammatical predicates.
3. Write five sentences, underscoring the Logical predicates.

17. The Modifying elements in the subject of a simple sentence are: I. ADJECTIVE ELEMENTS; II. ADJUNCT ELEMENTS; III. POSSESSIVE ELEMENTS; IV. PHRASE ELEMENTS.

I. The Adjective Elements in the subject of a simple sentence are such words as are used to modify or limit the meaning of the grammatical subject—that is, *adjectives*.

- EXAMPLES.**—1. *Violent* tornadoes are common in the tropics.
 2. *Sober* conduct is born of sober thought.
 3. *The fairest* fruit is least accessible.

Here the adjectives “violent,” “sober,” “the,” and “fairest,” are adjective elements in the subjects of the sentences.

II. The Adjunct Elements in the subject of a sentence are those combinations of words which are so closely joined to the grammatical subject that they can not be omitted without destroying the sense of the expression.*

*An *Adjunct* is a combination of words added to some part of a sentence to

- EXAMPLES.—1. The love *of money* is the root of evil.
 2. A tendency *towards decay* was seen in the empire.
 3. A little *with contentment* is better than great riches.

Here the expressions “of money,” “towards decay,” and “with contentment,” are adjunct elements in the subjects of the respective sentences.

Remark 1.—Sometimes the adjunct element may itself contain an adjective element.

EXAMPLE.—Adherence *to a FIXED purpose* was a part of Napoleon’s policy.

Here the adjective element “fixed” is a part of the phrase element “to a fixed purpose.”

Remark 2.—Sometimes an adjunct element in the subject consists of an infinitive.

EXAMPLE.—Eagerness *to succeed* was shown in all his conduct.

III. The Possessive Elements in the subject of a sentence are nouns or pronouns in the possessive case joined to the grammatical subject.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *Man’s* days are as a hand-breadth.
 2. The *merchant’s* profits were wasted in speculation.
 3. *His* creditors were the chief sufferers.

Here the nouns “man’s” and “merchant’s” and the pronoun “his” are possessive elements in the subjects of the respective sentences.

Remark.—Sometimes a possessive element is contained in an adjunct or phrase modifying the subject.

develop the meaning of that particular part, which would otherwise be incomplete; as, Love *of fame* has made some men insane. If the adjunct “of fame” be omitted the sense of the sentence is destroyed. An adjunct is logically *inseparable into parts*. It expresses but *one idea*, and that idea limits the meaning of the word with which it is associated, and from which it can not be detached.

EXAMPLE.—Anxiety *about his trial* was expressed by the prisoner.

Here the possessive element “his” is contained in the adjunct “about his trial.”

IV. The Phrase Elements in the subject of a simple sentence are of *three kinds*:

1. *Adjective phrases*—that is, such phrases as are introduced by adjectives, and joined to the grammatical subject.

2. *Participial phrases*—that is, such phrases as are introduced by participles, and joined to the grammatical subject.

3. *Appositional phrases*—that is, such phrases as contain some word or words in apposition with the grammatical subject of the sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. Greene, *firm in his purpose*, still pressed forward.

2. The men, *awakened by the alarm*, sprang to their feet.

3. They, *the survivors*, gathered around him.

Here the italicized parts are phrases in the subjects of the respective sentences: the first, an adjective phrase; the second, a participial phrase; the third, an appositional phrase.

Remark 1.—Adjunct, possessive, and phrase elements, as well as adjectives proper, have a modifying influence upon the subject of the sentences, and, for that reason, may all be included under the common class called *Adjective elements*.

Remark 2.—Phrase elements have the nature of abridged sentences, and are logically *separable into parts*. The phrase may be detached from the sentence in which it occurs without destroying the sense of the expression.

EXAMPLE.—The man, *astonished at what had occurred*, stood still.

In this example the participial phrase may be expanded into the sentence, *who* was astonished, etc.; or the phrase may be omitted without destroying the sense of the expression.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the Modifying Elements in the subjects of the simple sentences in the Exercises, page 117.

2. Write two simple sentences containing Adjective elements in the subjects.

3. Write two simple sentences containing Adjunct elements in the subjects.

4. Write two simple sentences containing Possessive elements in the subjects.

18. The Modifying elements in the predicate of a simple sentence are: I. ADVERBIAL ELEMENTS; II. OBJECTIVE ELEMENTS; III. COMPLEMENTARY ELEMENTS; IV. ADJUNCT ELEMENTS; V. PHRASE ELEMENTS.

I. The Adverbial Elements in the predicate of a simple sentence are those words which are used to modify the meaning of the grammatical predicate—that is, *adverbs*.

EXAMPLES.—1. The brooks in spring-time ripple *merrily*.

2. The old chief strode *angrily away*.

Here the adverbs “merrily,” “angrily,” and “away,” are adverbial elements in the predicates of the simple sentences.

II. The Objective Elements in the predicates of simple sentences are such words or combinations of words as are the objects of transitive verbs.

EXAMPLES.—1. The keeper quickly opened the *gate*.

2. A company of children began a *song*.

3. The new teacher received *him* kindly.

Here the nouns “gate” and “song” and the pronoun “him” are objective elements in the predicates of the sentences.

III. The Complementary Elements in the predicate of a sim-

ple sentence are such nouns or adjectives as are necessary to complete the sense after verbs of imperfect predication.

EXAMPLES.—1. Demosthenes became a great *orator*.

2. The honeysuckles by the wall looked *beautiful*.

Here the complementary words “orator” and “beautiful” are necessary to complete the sense after the verbs “became” and “looked”—verbs of imperfect predication.

IV. **The Adjunct Elements** in the predicate of a simple sentence are the same as the adjunct elements in the subject.

EXAMPLES.—1. We saw a swallow *on the barn*.

2. The Caffres hunt ostriches *through the desert*.

3. There is a rapture *by the lonely shore*.

Here the italicized parts are adjunct elements in the predicates of the respective sentences.

V. **The Phrase Elements** in the predicate of a simple sentence are the same as the phrase elements in the subject, with the addition of the *Causal Phrase*, which occurs in the predicate *only*.

EXAMPLE.—We next went *to see the tombs of the poets*.

Here the italicized part denotes the *reason* or *purpose* of the action expressed by the verb, and is called a causal phrase.

EXERCISES.

1. Select a Lesson from the Reader, point out and name the modifying elements in the predicates of the simple sentences.

2. Write two simple sentences containing Adverbial Elements in the predicate.

3. Write two simple sentences containing Objective Elements in the predicates.

4. Write two simple sentences containing Complementary Elements in the predicates.

5. Illustrate the use of Adjunct and Phrase Elements in the predicates of simple sentences.

19. The Independent elements in a simple sentence are such words and expressions as have no syntactical connection with the other parts of the sentence. These are :

1. **Interjectional Elements**—that is, such words as express simple emotions of the mind.

2. **Vocative Elements**—that is, such parts of the sentence as contain an address or invocation.

3. **Absolute Elements**—that is, such participial clauses as are used independently.

EXAMPLES.—1. The ship, *alas!* with all on board, went down.

2. The day, *O happy fate!* broke bright and clear.

3. *Their guns being loaded,* the hunters departed.

Here the italicized parts are independent elements in the respective sentences: the first, an interjectional element; the second, a vocative element; and the third, an absolute element.

20. The Connective elements in a simple sentence are those prepositions and conjunctions which are used to connect the dependent parts, or to express the relation between them.*

EXAMPLES.—1. Benjamin Franklin, *of* Pennsylvania, was made chairman.

2. Lincoln, *with* his benevolent spirit *and* quaint manners, was greatly loved.

Here the prepositions “*of*” and “*with*” and the conjunction “*and*” are connective elements in the respective sentences

21. A simple sentence may be abbreviated by the

*The *Relative pronoun*, the office of which is also connective, can not occur in a simple sentence.

omission of some of its elements. This process is called **Ellipsis**.

EXAMPLES.—1. I will away to Rome = I will *go* away to Rome.

2. Come to the moon-lit glen = Come *thou* to the moon-lit glen.

Remark.—The part of the sentence omitted is necessary to *the grammatical construction* of the sentence, but not necessary to *the sense*. In parsing and analysis the element or elements omitted must be supplied.

22. The ellipsis in a simple sentence is effected in several ways :

I. By the omission of the subject of the sentence.

EXAMPLE.—Consider the lilies = Consider *ye* the lilies.

II. By the omission of the predicate.

EXAMPLE.—Who comes here? I = I *come here*.

III. By the omission of both subject and predicate.

EXAMPLES.—1. Revenge! = *Let us seek* revenge.

2. Water! = *Give me* water.

IV. By the omission of the participle in absolute constructions.

EXAMPLE.—Bold in debate, Adams led in the discussion = *Being* bold in debate, etc.

V. By the omission of connectives.

EXAMPLES.—1. I think you will be disappointed = I think *that* you will be disappointed.

2. Hope, fear, anger, distrust, were surging within him = Hope, fear, anger, *and* distrust were surging, etc.

Note.—It is customary, in a succession of nouns, to use the conjunction between the last two *only*.

ORDER OF ANALYSIS.

23. The order of analysis for simple sentences is :

1. A Simple Sentence, and why ;
2. Declarative, Interrogative, etc., and why ;
3. Essential Elements, and why ;
4. Accidental Elements, and why ;
5. Grammatical Subject, and why ;
6. Grammatical Predicate, and why ;
7. Logical Subject, and why ;
8. Logical Predicate, and why ;
9. Modifying Elements of the Subject ;
10. Modifying Elements of the Predicate ;
11. Connective Elements and the parts connected ;
12. Independent Elements of the Sentence.

MODEL FOR ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

I. Stars shine.

Stars shine, is a simple sentence, because it contains a single statement ; declarative, because it expresses a thought as an assertion ; the essential elements are "stars" and "shine," because they are the parts without which the sentence could not exist ; accidental elements, none ; the grammatical subject is "stars," because it is the particular word of which something is asserted ; the grammatical predicate is "shine," because it expresses that which is asserted of "stars ;" the logical subject is identical with the grammatical subject, and the logical predicate with the grammatical predicate ; modifying elements, none ; connective elements, none ; independent elements, none.

II. Twinkling stars shine brightly in the sky.

Twinkling stars shine, etc., is a simple sentence, because it con-

tains a single statement; declarative, because it expresses a thought as an assertion; the essential elements are "stars" and "shine," etc.; the accidental elements are "twinkling," "brightly," and "in the sky;" the grammatical subject is "stars," because, etc.; the grammatical predicate is "shine," because, etc.; the logical subject is "twinkling stars," being the grammatical subject, together with its modifying parts; the logical predicate is "shine brightly in the sky," because it contains the whole predication; the modifying element of the subject is "twinkling," an adjective element; the modifying elements of the predicate are "brightly," an adverbial element, and "in the sky," an adjunct element consisting of the preposition "in" and its regimen;* the connective element is "in," a prepositional element; the independent elements, none.

II. A fool, eager to be heard, speaks all his mind at once.

A fool . . . speaks, etc., is a simple sentence, etc.; declarative, etc.; the essential elements are "fool" and "speaks;" the accidental elements are "eager to be heard," "all his mind," and "at once;" the grammatical subject is "fool;" the grammatical predicate is "speaks;" the logical subject is "a fool, eager to be heard;" the logical predicate is "speaks all his mind at once;" the modifying elements of the subject are the adjective element "a" and the adjective phrase element "eager to be heard;" the phrase element contains the infinitive adjunct "to be heard;" the modifying elements of the predicate are the objective element "all his mind" and the adjunct element "at once;" the objective element contains the adjective element "all" and the possessive element "his;" the adjunct element consists of the preposition "at" and the regimen "once;" the connective element is "in;" the independent elements, none.

*The *regimen* of a preposition is the part of the sentence which is governed by it.

IV. Clay, resuming the argument, addressed the Senate at great length to convince them of the wisdom of the proposed measure.

Clay, resuming, etc., is a simple sentence, etc.; declarative, etc., the essential elements are "Clay" and "addressed;" the accidental elements are "resuming the argument," etc.; the grammatical subject, "Clay;" the grammatical predicate, "addressed;" the logical subject, "Clay, resuming the argument;" the logical predicate, "addressed the Senate at great," etc.; the modifying element of the subject is the participial phrase "resuming the argument;" the phrase contains the objective element "argument;" the modifying elements of the predicate are the objective element "Senate," the adjunct element "at great length," and the phrase element "to convince," etc.—a causal phrase; the phrase contains the objective element "them," the adjunct elements "of the wisdom" and "of the proposed measure;" the adjunct "of the proposed measure" contains the adjective element "proposed;" the connective elements are "at," "of," and "of"—prepositional elements; independent elements, none.

V. Break on thy cold, gray stones, O sea!

Break on thy cold, etc., is a simple sentence, etc.; imperative, because it expresses a command; the essential elements are *thou* understood and "break;" the accidental elements are "on thy cold," etc.; the grammatical subject is *thou* understood; the grammatical predicate is "break;" the logical subject is *thou* understood; the logical predicate is "break on thy," etc.; modifying elements of subject, none; the modifying element of the predicate is the adjunct element "on thy cold, gray stones;" the adjunct contains the adjective elements "cold" and "gray," and the possessive element "thy;" the connective element is "on," a prepositional element; the independent elements are "O," an interjectional element, and "sea," a vocative element.

VI. Egeria, the Roman nymph, became a fountain of water.

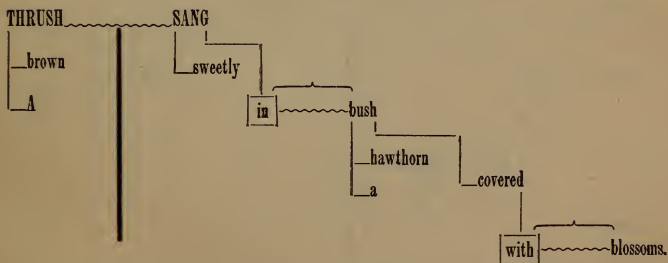
Egeria, the Roman, etc., is a simple sentence, etc.; declarative, etc.; essential elements, "Egeria" and "became;" grammatical subject, "Egeria;" grammatical predicate, "became;" the modifying element of the subject is "the Roman nymph," an appositional phrase; the phrase contains the adjective elements "the" and "Roman;" the modifying element of the predicate is "a fountain of water," a complementary element; the complement contains the adjunct "of water;" the connective element is "of;" independent elements, none.

Remark.—According to the foregoing models, and with slight variations therefrom, all simple sentences may be analyzed.

24. The Analysis of sentences may be represented to the eye by means of **Diagrams**.

MODELS FOR ANALYSIS BY DIAGRAM.

I. A brown thrush sang sweetly in a hawthorn bush covered with blossoms.



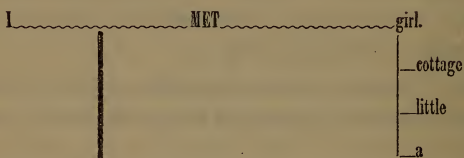
Explanation.—1. Essential elements are set in *capitals*.

2. Accidental elements are set in *Roman type*.

3. The logical subject is divided from the logical predicate by the *heavy vertical bar*.

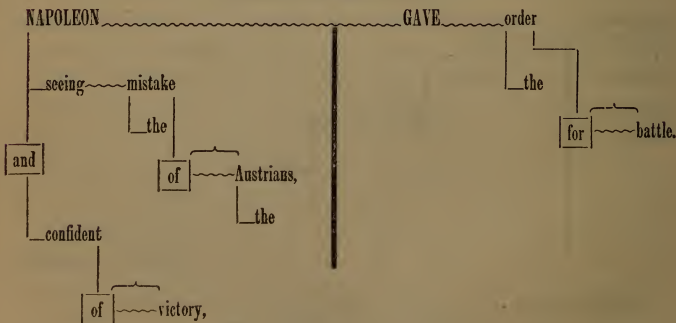
4. Subordinate elements are placed *in subordinate relation*.
5. Connective elements are set *in links* between the connected parts.
6. Grammatical government* is indicated by *the waving line*.
7. Grammatical modification or limitation is indicated by *the plain line*, the modifying part being subordinate to the part modified.
8. The complementary relation, where it exists, is denoted by *a dotted line*.
9. The unity of the adjunct element is indicated by *the brace*.

II. I met a little cottage girl.



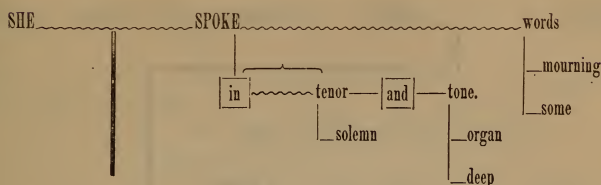
In this example the objective element, "girl," is introduced. The development of the diagram is wholly on the side of the predicate

III. Napoleon, seeing the mistake of the Austrians, and confident of victory, gave the order for battle.

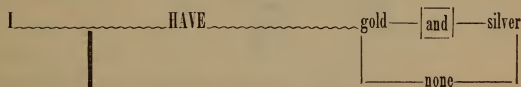


* For meaning of "grammatical government," see page 219.

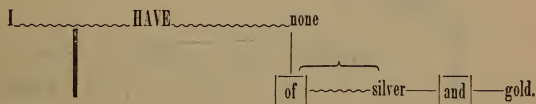
IV. Some mourning words she spoke
 •In solemn tenor and deep organ tone.



V. Silver and gold have I none.

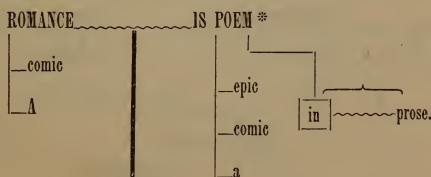


In the last example "none" = *no*. Regarding "none" as an indefinite pronoun, the analysis is as follows:



In this case the connective "of" is understood.

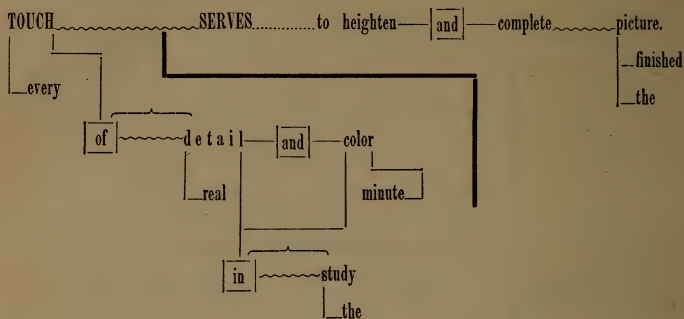
VI. A comic romance is a comic epic poem in prose.



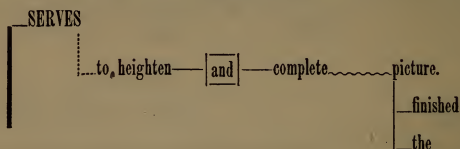
Here "poem" is a part of the grammatical predicate of the sentence.

* For grammatical relation of "poem" and "is," see Sp. Rule I, page 251.

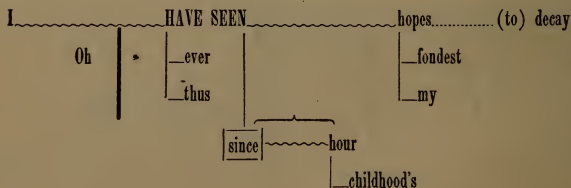
VII. Every touch of real detail and minute color in the study serves to heighten and complete the finished picture.



Here the infinitive adjunct "to heighten" is complementary to the grammatical predicate "serves." In such a case the dotted line may be drawn vertically, as follows:

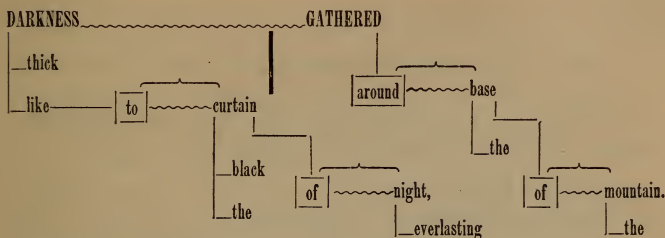


VIII. Oh, ever thus since childhood's hour
I've seen my fondest hopes decay.



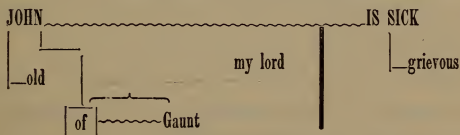
In this example note the detached position of the independent element "oh;" also the supplying of "to" in the infinitive phrase element, and the full form of the verb "have seen" for "I've seen."

IX. Thick darkness, like the black curtain of everlasting night,
gathered around the base of the mountain.

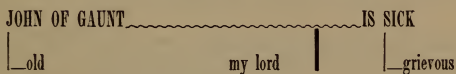


In this example note the supplying of the connective "to" after the adjective element "like." Otherwise "like" may govern "curtain" directly. (See p. 000.)

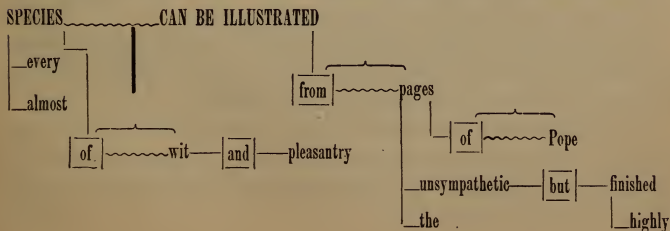
X. Old John of Gaunt is grievous sick, my lord.



The diagram of this example may be constructed thus:



XI. From the highly finished but unsympathetic pages of Pope almost every species of wit and pleasantry can be illustrated.



Remark.—With the foregoing models, and slight variations therefrom, the diagrams of all simple sentences may be produced.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

I. According to the models give the Oral and the Diagram Analysis of the following simple sentences :

1. Into the valley of Death

Rode the six hundred. — *Tennyson*.

2. One morn a Peri at the gate

Of Eden stood disconsolate. — *Moore*.

3. Under her torn hat glowed the wealth

Of simple beauty and rustic health. — *Whittier*.

4. Each in his narrow cell forever laid,

The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep. — *Gray*.

5. And Harold stands upon this place of skulls,

The grave of France, the deadly Waterloo. — *Byron*.

6. The method of a fly's walking on the ceiling has been much discussed by men of science.

7. Who can realize the vast system of planetary and stellar worlds?

8. In times past the suggestion of such an instrument as the telephone would have excited the incredulity and ridicule of all classes.

9. The Yellowstone National Park, in the north-western corner of Wyoming Territory, embraces in a small area the most varied and picturesque scenery in the world.

10. Many men of only moderate means foolishly adopt a style of living excessively extravagant and totally at variance with the theory of honest dealing in their business.

11. The elevated railways of New York seem to have furnished a natural and satisfactory solution of the difficult and perplexing question of the rapid transfer of large crowds from place to place in great cities.

IV. THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

23. A complex sentence is one consisting of a principal and a subordinate sentence united in a single statement.

EXAMPLES.—1. He had a fever when he was in Spain.

2. They are never alone who have noble thoughts.

3. I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows.

Each of these examples consists of a principal and a subordinate sentence united in a single statement, and is therefore a complex sentence.

Remark 1.—In many instances the subordinate part stands first in a complex sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. *If you have tears*, prepare to shed them.

2. *While stands the Coliseum*, Rome shall stand.

Here the subordinate parts stand first in the sentences.

Remark 2.—Sometimes the subordinate part of a complex sentence stands between the elements of the principal part.

EXAMPLES.—1. Heroes, *when their country calls*, obey.

2. They *who see no danger* know no fear.

24. The principal and subordinate parts of a complex sentence are called **Clauses**.

I. That part of a complex sentence which embodies the leading statement in the sentence is called **the principal or independent clause**.

II. That part of a complex sentence which embodies the subordinate statement is called **the subordinate or dependent clause**.

EXAMPLES.—1. He was a man *that had seen many lands*.

2. He had the gold *for which he had so long labored*.

Here the parts in Roman type are the principal, and the parts in Italics the dependent clauses in the respective sentences.

Remark 1.—The subordinate clause in a complex sentence may itself contain a subordinate clause.

EXAMPLE.—The stream *that turned the mill* AT WHICH THE TRAVELER HAD HALTED, was muddy and swollen.

Here the clause “at which the traveler had halted” is subordinate to the dependent clause “that turned the mill.”

Remark 2.—Subordinate clauses are joined to principal clauses by some of the connective elements—prepositions, relative pronouns, conjunctions.

25. The subordinate clauses of complex sentences are of **five kinds**:

I. The Relative Clause,—that is, a clause containing a relative pronoun.

EXAMPLES.—1. The man *who waits on fortune* will die waiting.

2. Bryant, *whom all men honored*, is dead.

3. The road *by which we were to return*, was impassable.

II. The Causal Clause,—that is, a clause introduced by a causal conjunction (see page 192), and denoting the reason or purpose of the action expressed in the principal clause.

EXAMPLES.—1. Our fathers sought these shores *that they might escape from persecution*.

2. We sow the seed *because we believe in a coming summer*.

III. The Hypothetical Clause,—that is, a clause introduced by one of the conjunctions peculiar to the subjunctive mode (see page 126), and expressing the condition on which the principal clause of the sentence depends.

EXAMPLES.—1. *If I were not Alexander*, I would be Diogenes.

2. Obey the laws of nature *lest thou become unnatural*.

IV. The Adverbial Clause,—that is, a clause introduced by

a conjunctive adverb (see page 175), and holding the relation of an adverb to the verb in the principal clause.

EXAMPLES.—1. Fools rush in *WHERE* *angels fear to tread*.

2. *WHEN he had resigned his command*, Washington returned to Mount Vernon.

V. The Appositional Clause,—that is, a clause in apposition with one of the essential elements in the principal clause of the sentence.

EXAMPLE.—The proverb, *A fool and his money are soon parted*, is many times exemplified.

Remark 1.—Any one of the above clauses may be an essential element—that is, either subject or predicate—of the sentence in which it occurs.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Think of to-morrow*, is a good maxim.

2. His motto was, *Never despair*.

Remark 2.—In all other cases the dependent clause, viewed in respect to the sentence in which it occurs, is an accidental element—that is, objective, modifying, etc.

EXAMPLES.—1. I knew *that the merchant had returned*.

2. A house *that is unpainted* is an advertisement of unthrift.

In the first of these examples the dependent clause is an objective element; in the last, a modifying element.

26. Complex sentences are of many forms, according to the nature and number of the clauses which they contain.

I. The first form of the complex sentence is that which contains one principal and one subordinate clause.

EXAMPLE.—He knew *that his hour had come*.

II. The second form is that which contains two or more subordinate clauses.

EXAMPLE.—He *that hath friends* hath something *of which he may well be proud*.

III. The third form is that which contains clauses subordinate to other subordinate clauses.

EXAMPLE.—Men *who know THAT THEY ARE WRONG* are always weak.

Remark.—The subordination of clauses may extend to the third or even fourth degree.

EXAMPLE.—Men *who feel THAT THEY ARE RIGHT in what they undertake*, are always strong.

IV. The fourth form is that which contains a clause as one of its essential elements.

EXAMPLE.—*Men are created equal*, is the language of the Declaration.

Remark.—This classification might be considerably extended by adding other varieties of clause-structure.

27. A complex sentence may be changed into a simple sentence by a process called **abridgment**.

I. The relative clause in a complex sentence becomes, by abridgment, an adjective or participial clause of a simple sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. A speaker *who is earnest in delivery* will command the attention of his hearers.

This sentence becomes, by the abridgment of the relative clause,—

2. A speaker, *earnest in delivery*, will command, etc.

3. The reformer *who is decried to-day* will be praised to-morrow.

This sentence becomes, by the abridgment of the relative clause,—

4. The reformer, *decried to-day*, will be praised to-morrow.

5. The boat *which was floating down stream* lodged in a drift.

This sentence becomes, by the abridgment of the relative clause,—

6. The boat, *floating down stream*, lodged in a drift.

Here the complex sentences 1, 3, 5, are changed, by the abridgment of the clauses, into the simple sentences 2, 4, 6.

II. The causal clause in a complex sentence becomes, by abridgment, a participial or absolute clause, or an infinitive phrase, in a simple sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. Greene pressed on *that he might reach the river in advance of the British*

This sentence becomes, by abridgment,—

2. Greene pressed on *to reach the river*, etc.

3. The birds darted into the thicket *because they feared the storm*.

This sentence becomes, by abridgment,—

4. The birds darted into the thicket, *fearing the storm*.

5. Men love darkness *because their deeds are evil*.

This sentence becomes, by abridgment,—

6. Men love darkness, *their deeds being evil*.

III. The adverbial clause in a complex sentence becomes by abridgment a participial clause or a common adjunct in a simple sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. *When the order was given*, the march was resumed.

This sentence becomes by abridgment,—

2. *The order being given*, the march was resumed.

3. *When the day closes*, the hum of toil ceases.

This sentence becomes, by abridgment,—

4. *With the close of day*, the hum of toil ceases.

In the preceding examples, sentences 1, 3, are complex sentences, and 2, 4, simple sentences.

EXERCISES.

1. Write five Complex sentences, underscoring the dependent clauses.

2. Write the same sentences so abridged as to become Simple sentences.

ORDER OF ANALYSIS.

28. The **order of analyzing** a complex sentence is:

1. A Complex sentence, and why;
2. The Principal and the Subordinate clause or clauses;
3. The analysis of the Principal clause according to the model for analysis of simple sentences;
4. The analysis of the Subordinate clause or clauses in the same manner.

MODELS FOR ORAL ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

I. I would hear the voice which was my music.

I would hear, etc., is a complex sentence, because it contains a principal and a subordinate proposition; "I would hear the voice" is the principal clause, and "which was my music" the subordinate clause; in the principal clause the essential elements are "I" and "would hear;" the accidental elements are "the voice;" the logical subject is "I," etc., etc. The essential elements in the subordinate clause are "which" and "was music;" the accidental element is "my;" the logical subject is "which," etc., etc.

Remark.—After reaching the essential elements in the principal or the subordinate clause, the analysis continues as in simple sentences.

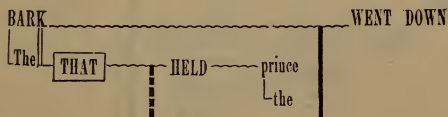
II. The night on which we left the camp was so dark
that rapid marching was impossible.

The night on which, etc., is a complex sentence, because it contains a principal and subordinate clauses; declarative, because it expresses the thought as an assertion; the principal clause is "The night was dark;" the subordinate clauses are "on which we left the camp" and "rapid marching was impossible;" in the principal clause the essential elements are "night" and "was dark;" the accidental elements are "the" and "so," etc., etc. In the first subordinate clause the essential elements are "we" and "left;" the accidental elements are "on which" and "the camp," etc., etc. In the second subordinate clause the essential elements are "marching" and "was impossible;" the accidental elements are "that" and "rapid," etc., etc.

Remark.—With these models, and such variations of the same as are naturally suggested, all complex sentences may be readily analyzed.

MODELS FOR DIAGRAM ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

I. The bark that held the prince went down.



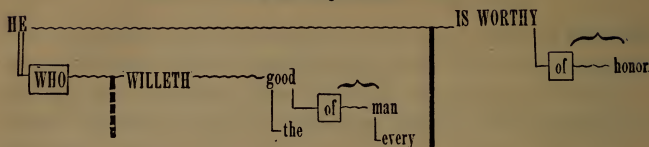
Explanation.—1. In the principal clause the same general disposition of the parts as in the simple sentence.

2. The dependence of the subordinate clause or clauses indicated by the double vertical line.

3. In the subordinate clause the same disposition of the parts as in the simple sentence.

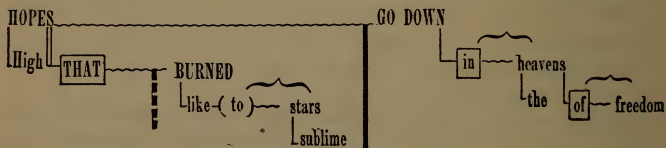
4. The logical subject and the logical predicate of the subordinate clause or clauses separated by the broken vertical bar.

II. He is worthy of honor who willeth the good
of every man.

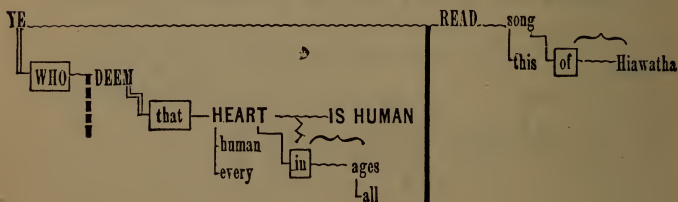


In this example observe the arrangement of the relative clause with the subject where it logically belongs.

III. High hopes, that burned like stars sublime,
Go down in the heavens of Freedom.



IV. Ye who deem that in all ages
Every human heart is human,
Read this song of Hiawatha. — *Longfellow*.

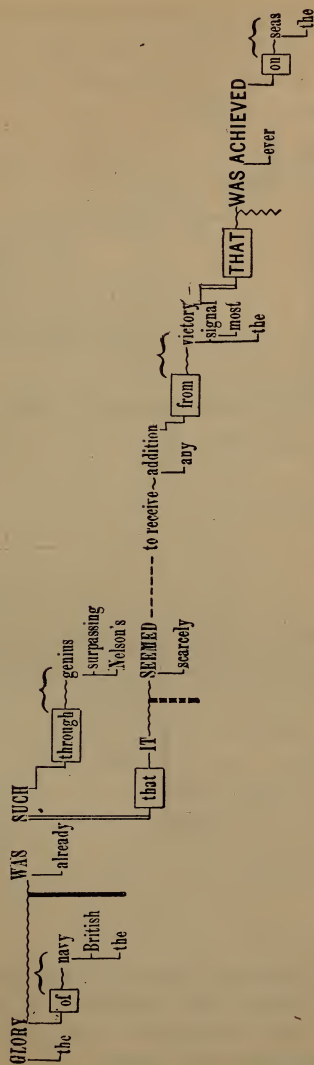


V. "Better be right than President," said Henry Clay.



In the preceding example observe the supplying of the words "that," "to," "is," and "to be"—omitted by ellipsis.

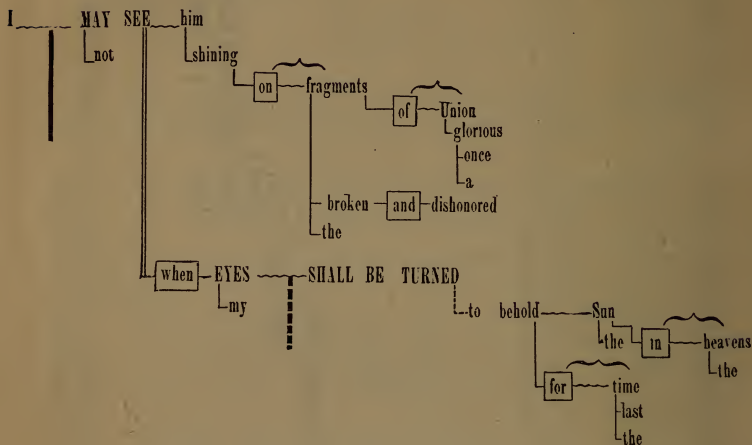
VI. Such already was the glory of the British navy, through Nelson's surpassing genius, that it scarcely seemed to receive any addition from the most signal victory that ever was achieved on the seas. — *Southey*.



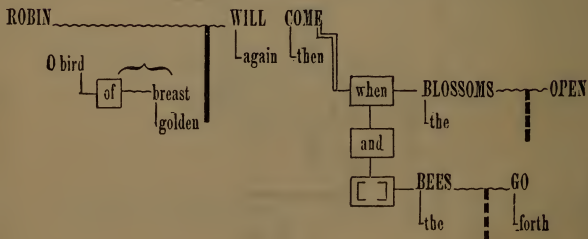
In this example the great development of the predicate, with its several degrees of subordination, will be noted. It will be seen that the subject is but slightly developed.

VII. When my eyes shall be turned to behold for the last time the sun in the heavens, may I not see him shining on fragments of Union glorious once a broken and dishonored the.

Union.—*Webster.*



VIII. When the blossoms open and the bees go forth, then Robin, O bird of golden breast, will come again.



In this example observe the analysis of the compound subordinate clause. The modifying element "forth," dependent on "go," may be regarded as a part of the compound grammatical predicate, "go forth."

Remark.—With slight variations, the foregoing diagrams may be used as models for the analysis of all complex sentences.

EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

Give the Oral and Diagram Analysis of the following Complex sentences:

1. I'm saddest when I sing.
2. On Linden, when the sun was low,
All bloodless lay th' untrodden snow.
3. Know ye the land where the cypress and myrtle
Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime?
4. The nightly hunter lifting up his eyes
Towards the crescent moon, with grateful heart
Calls on the lovely wanderer who bestows
That timely light, to share his joyous sport.—*Wordsworth*.
5. There is a spot of earth supremely blest,
A dearer, sweeter spot than all the rest;
Where man, creation's tyrant, casts aside
His sword and scepter, pageantry and pride.—*Montgomery*.
6. Within that chest had she concealed herself,
Fluttering with joy, the happiest of the happy;
When a spring lock, that lay in ambush there,
Fastened her down forever.—*Rogers*.
7. Every sham science, of which there are so many, makes for itself a jargon of words to cover its nothingness.—*Bentham*.
8. Mankind, says a Chinese manuscript, which my friend was obliging enough to translate for me, for the first seventy thousand ages ate their meat raw.—*Lamb*.
9. We could, we think, also show that the evils produced by the Jacobin administration did not terminate when it fell.
10. We were now treading that illustrious island which was once the luminary of the Caledonian regions, whence roving barbarians derived the benefits of knowledge.—*Johnson*.

V. THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

30. A compound sentence is one which consists of two or more simple or complex sentences united by a coördinative conjunction.

- EXAMPLES. — 1. The rains descended and the winds blew.
2. He heard it, but he heeded not.
3. Go and sin no more.

Each of these examples is a compound sentence consisting of two simple sentences.

4. The flowers gladden, the air breathes balm, and the sunshine smiles.

5. The evening came on, the shadows gathered, the birds flew to their covert, and the red fox came out of his den.

Each of these examples is a compound sentence consisting of more than two simple sentences.

6. A blind man, who can not see the beauties of nature, deserves our sympathy, and the dull man, who will not, deserves our pity.

This example is a compound sentence consisting of two complex sentences.

7. A merry fellow was selling toy-balloons to the children, and a little girl in ragged clothes was crying for her mother, who had abandoned her.

This example is a compound sentence consisting of one simple and one complex sentence. The list of examples might easily be extended by adding other varieties.

31. Many compound sentences have the form of simple sentences with compound subjects, compound predicates, or both. (See page 205, Remarks 1, 2, 3.)

EXAMPLES.—1. *Hail and sleet* are produced by currents of cold air.

2. Froude is *an essayist and historian*.

3. *Explorers and adventurers* went *every-where* and settled *nowhere*.

In example 1 the subject, in example 2 the predicate, and in example 3 both subject and predicate, are compound.

Remark 1.—Sentences of the sort just described have a *mixed* character. *Grammatically*, they may well be regarded as simple sentences; but, *logically* considered, they are compound sentences, and should be so classified in analyzing.

Remark 2.—In giving the analysis of mixed sentences the parts necessary to a logical expression may be supplied.

EXAMPLES.—1. Air and exercise are essential to health = Air is essential and exercise is essential.

2. Time creates and destroys = Time creates and time destroys.

3. There she stands, and will stand forever = There she stands, and there she will stand forever.

Remark 3.—The distinction between compound and complex sentences is sometimes difficult to draw. This arises from the fact that a coördinate clause may be mistaken for a subordinate clause. Many conjunctions (see pages 191, 192) are both coördinative and subordinative, and the clauses which they connect may be confounded.

EXAMPLES.—1. The mail arrived WHILE *we remained at the station*.

2. Our friends set out for Detroit, WHILE *we returned home*.

The first of these examples, containing a subordinate clause introduced by the subordinative conjunction "while," is a complex sentence; the second, containing a coördinate clause introduced by the coördinative conjunction "while," is a compound sentence.

EXERCISES.

1. Point out the Compound sentences in the Exercises on page 184.
2. Write five Compound sentences.

ORDER OF ANALYSIS.

32. The order of analyzing a compound sentence is:

1. A Compound sentence, and why;
2. The Clauses which compose it;
3. The Analysis of each clause according to the models given for analysis of Simple and Complex sentences.

MODEL FOR ORAL ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

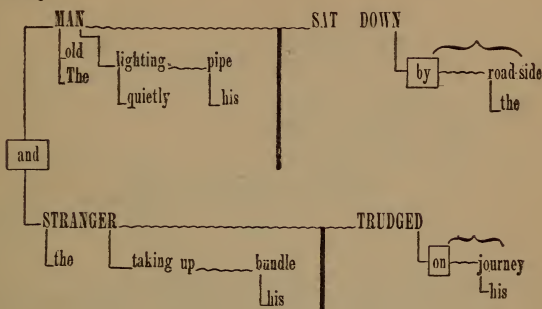
Great was the joy; but at the nuptial feast,
When all sate down, the bride herself was wanting.

Great was the joy, etc., is a compound sentence, because it consists of a simple and a complex sentence united in a single proposition; declarative, because it contains an assertion; the clauses are "Great was the joy"—a simple sentence—and "at the nuptial feast," etc.—a complex sentence; in the first member the essential elements are "joy" and "was great;" the accidental element is "the," etc., etc. In the second member the principal clause is "the bride herself was wanting," and the subordinate clause is "when all sate down;" in the principal clause the essential elements are "bride" and "was wanting," etc., etc.; in the subordinate clause the essential elements are "all" and "sate down," etc., etc.

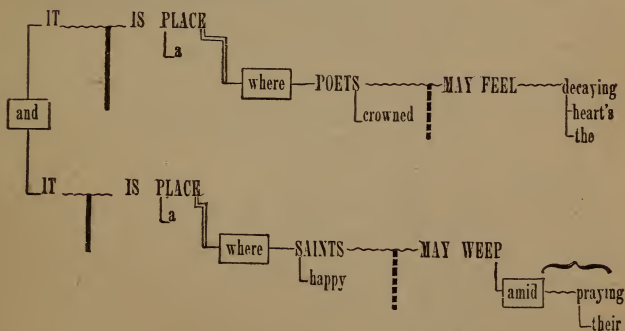
Remark.—With this model, and such variations of the same as are readily suggested, all compound sentences may be analyzed.

MODELS FOR DIAGRAM ANALYSIS OF COMPOUND SENTENCES.

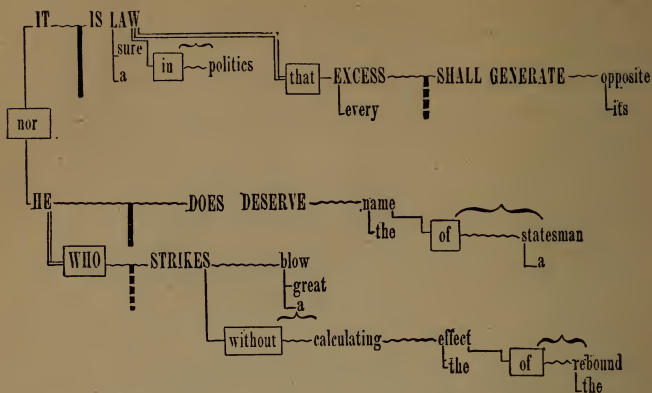
- I. The old man, quietly lighting his pipe, sat down by the road-side; and the stranger, taking up his bundle, trudged on his journey.



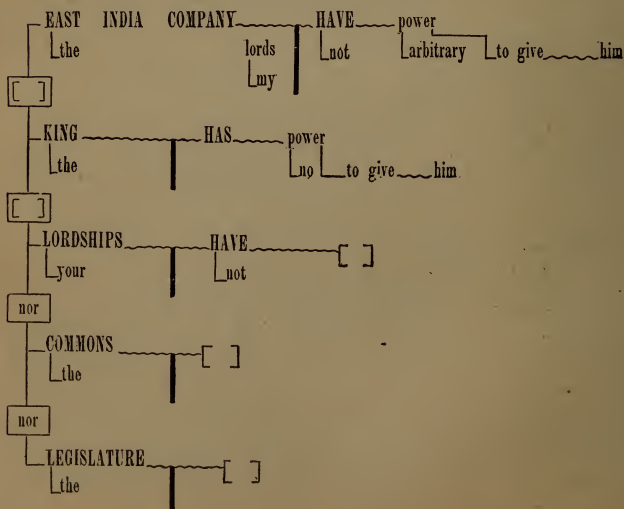
- II. It is a place where poets crowned may feel the heart's decaying,
It is a place where happy saints may weep amid their praying. — *Browning*.



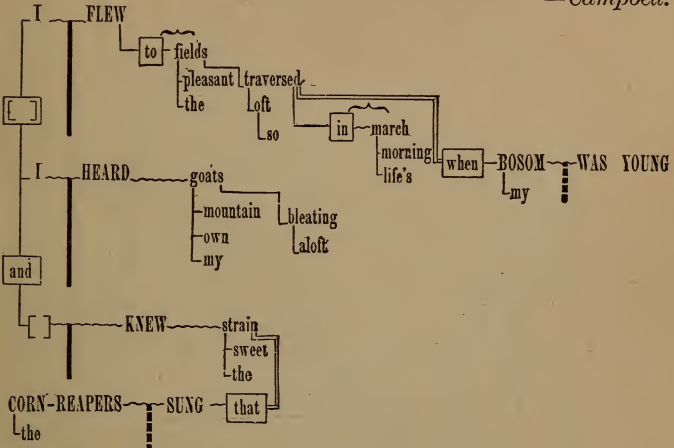
- III. In politics it is a sure law that every excess shall generate its opposite; nor does he deserve the name of a statesman, who strikes a great blow without fully calculating the effect of the rebound. — *Macaulay*.



IV. My lords, the East India Company have not arbitrary power to give him; the king has no arbitrary power to give him; your lordships have not; nor the Commons; nor the whole legislature. — *Pitt*.



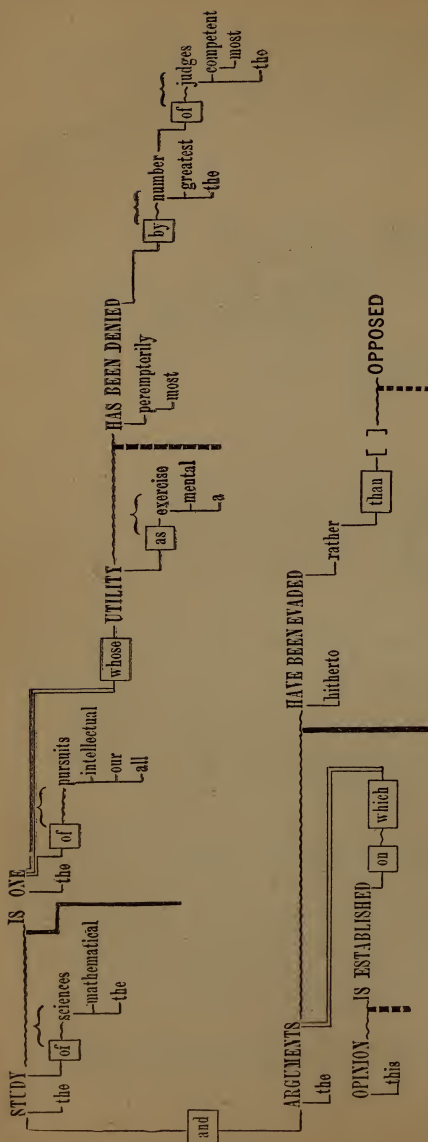
- V. I flew to the pleasant fields traversed so oft
 In life's morning march, when my bosom was young;
 I heard my own mountain-goats bleating aloft,
 And knew the sweet strain that the corn-reapers sung.
—Campbell.



In this example observe the peculiar position of the essential elements *before* the connective “that,” in the subordinate clause of the second member of the sentence. The lines of grammatical government in the diagrams run *from left to right*; and “that,” being an objective element, stands *after* the transitive verb “sung,” by which it is syntactically governed.

- VI. Of all our intellectual pursuits, the study of the mathematical sciences is the one whose utility as a mental exercise has been most peremptorily denied by the greatest number of the most competent judges; and the arguments on which this opinion is established, have hitherto been evaded rather than opposed.—*Buckle.*

* It will be noted that in clauses before which the connective is omitted the subject is inserted, and where the subject is omitted the connective must be used.



VII. Of man's first disobedience and the fruit

Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste

Brought death into the world and all our woe,

With loss of Eden, till one greater Man

Restore us and regain the blissful seat,

Sing, heavenly Muse! that on the secret top

Of Oreb, or of Sinai, didst inspire

That shepherd, who first taught the chosen seed,

In the beginning, how the heavens and earth

Rose out of Chaos: or, if Sion hill

Delight thee more, and Siloa's brook that flowed

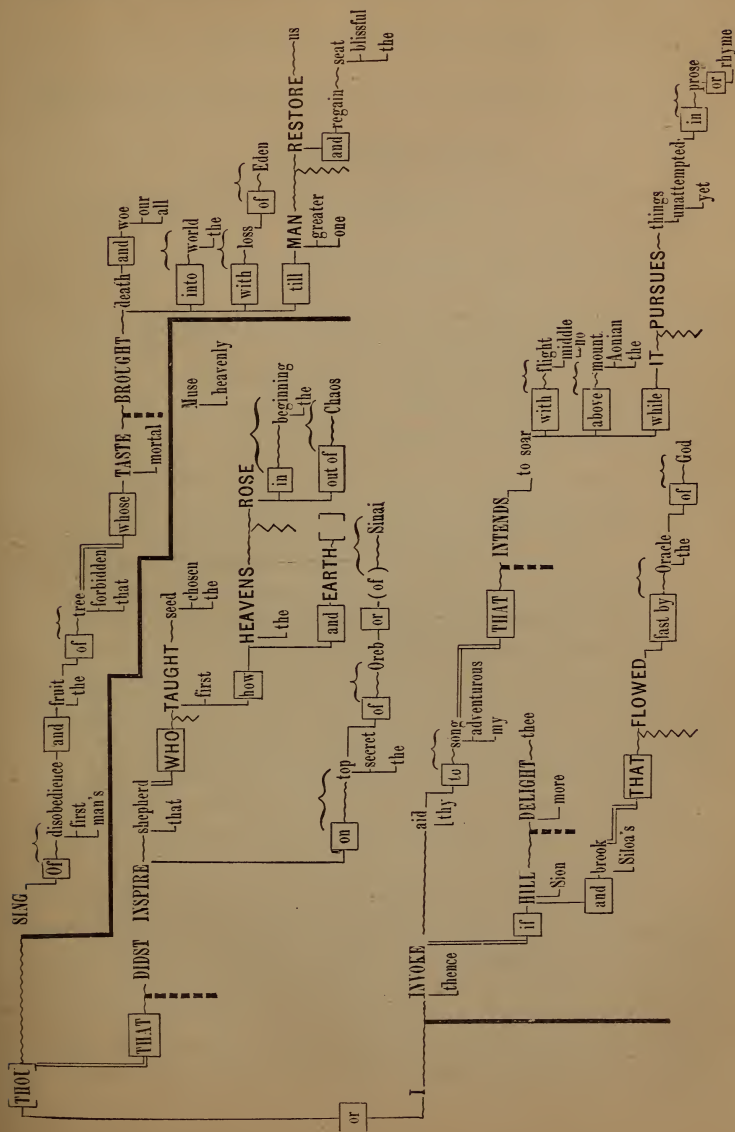
Fast by the oracle of God, I thence

Invoke thy aid to my adventurous song,

That with no middle flight intends to soar

Above the Aonian mount, while it pursues

Things unattempted yet in prose or rhyme.



EXERCISES IN ANALYSIS.

Give Oral and Diagram Analysis of the following Compound sentences :

1. All the world's a stage,
And all the men and women merely players.
2. Art is long and Time is fleeting, — *Shakespeare*.
And our hearts, though stout and brave,
Still, like muffled drums, are beating
Funeral marches to the grave. — *Longfellow*.
3. I have swung for ages to and fro ;
I have striven in vain to reach thy feet,
O Garden of joy ! whose walls are low
And odors are so sweet. — *Raymond*.
4. Then in a wailful choir the small gnats mourn
Among the river shallows borne aloft,
Or sinking, as the light wind lives or dies ;
And full-grown lambs loud bleat from hilly bourn ;
Hedge crickets sing ; and now, with treble soft,
The redbreast whistles from a garden-croft ;
And gathering swallows twitter in the skies. — *Keats*.
5. Man changes and quits the arena ; his opinions pass away
and change with him ; history alone remains upon the stage
as the immortal citizen of all nations and ages. — *Schiller*.
6. The blaze of truth and liberty may at first dazzle and bewilder nations which have become half blind in the house of bondage ; but let them gaze on, and they will soon be able to bear it. — *Macaulay*.
7. Turning to the other half of the world of life, picture to yourselves the great Finner whale, hugest of beasts that live, or have lived, disporting his eighty or ninety feet of bone, muscle, and blubber, with easy roll, among waves in which the stoutest ship that ever left dock-yard would founder hopelessly ; and contrast him with the invisible animalecules, multitudes of which could dance on the point of a needle. — *Huxley*.

CHAPTER XIII.

SYNTHESIS.

I. GENERAL RELATIONS OF WORDS.

1. **Synthesis** is that branch of syntax which treats of the putting together of words so as to constitute sentences.

2. The principles upon which sentences are constructed, are determined grammatically by *the relations of the words*.

3. The relations of words to each other in sentences may be classified under **three heads**:

I. That relation in virtue of which one word *influences* another word in its grammatical properties—called **Government**.

II. That relation in virtue of which one word *coincides* with another word in its grammatical properties—called **Agreement**, or **Concord**.

III. That relation in virtue of which one word *changes the sense* of another word with which it is associated—called **Modification**.

EXAMPLES.—1. I *directed him* to the post-office.

2. The old *man's house* is falling into ruins.

In example 1, the case of the pronoun “him” is determined by the verb “directed;” and in example 2, the case of the noun “man’s” is determined by the noun “house.” These are instances of grammatical *government*.

3. *Nature gives* her weary children sleep.

4. A true *man* is not forgotten when *he* dies.

In example 3, the verb "gives" agrees with its subject, "Nature," in number and person; and in example 4, the pronoun "he" agrees with its antecedent, "man," in gender, number, and person. These are instances of grammatical *agreement*.

5. A *red apple* hung on the *slender twig*.

6. The boys were *quickly discovered* in the haymow.

In example 5, the adjective "red" influences the meaning of the noun "apple;" and in example 6, the adverb "quickly" influences the meaning of the verb "discovered." These are examples of *modification*.

4. The principles in accordance with which words are joined together in constructing sentences are called **The Rules of Syntax**.

II. RULES OF SYNTAX.

5. The Rules of Syntax are divided into four classes: I. Rules of Synthesis proper; II. Rules of Collocation; III. Rules of Punctuation; IV. Rules of Figurative Language.

1. **The Rules of Synthesis** are formal statements of the principles which determine the *government*, *agreement*, and *modification*, of words in sentences.

2. **The Rules of Collocation** are formal statements of the principles which determine the *place*, or *position*, of words in sentences.

3. **The Rules of Punctuation** are formal statements of the principles which determine the *degrees of separation* between words in sentences, and the *marks* by which those degrees are indicated.

4. **The Rules of Figurative Language** are formal statements of the principles which govern certain *deviations* from the ordinary forms of speech.

SECTION I.—RULES OF SYNTHESIS.

I. The Subjective Relation. 28

6. RULE I.—The subject of a sentence is in the nominative case. (See pages 35, 65, 205.)

EXAMPLES.—1. Our *government* is by the people.

2. *They* would not permit us to explain.

Here the noun “government” and the pronoun “they” are the subjects of the respective sentences, and are in the nominative case, according to Rule I.

Remark.—Every sentence must have a subject either expressed or understood. For the various kinds of subjects, see 11, page 208.

SPECIAL RULE I.—A noun or pronoun, in the grammatical predicate of a sentence, is in the nominative case. (See 12, page 209.) 210.

EXAMPLES.—1. Keats was a *poet*.

2. Men who love their native land are *patriots*.

Here the nouns “poets” and “patriots,” being parts of the grammatical predicates of the respective sentences, are in the nominative case, according to Special Rule I.

Remark.—The noun used in the grammatical predicate of a sentence is called the *predicate-nominative*, as distinguished from the *subject-nominative*.

SPECIAL RULE II.—Nouns used as titles of books, or as names of places or persons, are in the nominative case—generally the predicate-nominative.

EXAMPLES.—1. Mommsen’s *History of Rome* = *This work is Mommsen’s History of Rome*.

2. Locust street = *This is Locust street*.

3. Gilbert Taylor = *Gilbert Taylor owns this book*.

Remark I.—In practical usage nouns in the nominative case

are sometimes used without the verbs of which they are the subjects.

EXAMPLE.—To whom thus Adam = Adam *replied*.

Remark 2.—In answering questions the noun in the nominative case is generally given without repetition of the verb.

EXAMPLE.—Who invented the phonograph? Answer: Edison = Edison *invented it*.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Point out and correct the Syntactical Errors in the following sentences:*

1. The boys and me were reading.
2. Them and their friends were drawing figures in the sand.
3. There are no pinks more beautiful than them.
4. She received better marks in Grammar than him.
5. Whom do men say that I am?
6. Was it you who deceived the teacher? Was it me?
7. You may refer the question to whomever is present.
8. We have as good rights and privileges as them.
9. Shall Henry have the place of honor? No, not him.
10. Who is ready to answer the last question? Me.

II. The Possessive Relation.

7. RULE II.—A noun or pronoun, used to limit the meaning of another noun denoting a different person or thing, is in the possessive case. (See pages 35, 66, 69.)

EXAMPLES.—1. The young *man's* trunk was broken open.

2. The orator *whose* voice we well remember, is dead.

3. The maiden gave *her* hand to Francesco.

Here the noun “man’s” and the pronouns “whose” and

*After correcting, analyze and parse each sentence.

“her”—limiting respectively the nouns “trunk,” “voice,” and “hand”—are in the possessive case, according to Rule II.

Remark 1.—The noun denoting the thing possessed is frequently omitted.

EXAMPLES.—1. A stranger came to my *father's* = my father's *house*.

2. The dome of *St. Peter's* = St. Peter's *cathedral*.

Remark 2.—If the noun denoting the thing possessed be a *participial noun*, the limiting word is in the possessive case.

EXAMPLES.—1. Industry was the cause of *his* (not *him*) succeeding.

2. We were not surprised at *their* (not *them*) meeting with disaster.

Remark 3.—In the case of *joint possession*, only the last of the nouns in the possessive relation has the possessive sign ('s).

EXAMPLE.—Mary and *Ellen's* flower-bed—not Mary's and Ellen's.

Remark 4.—In the case of *separate possession*, each of the nouns in the possessive relation has the possessive sign.

EXAMPLE.—*Webster's* and *Worcester's* Dictionaries—not Webster and Worcester's.

Remark 5.—In the case of *appositive possession*, only the appositive noun takes the possessive sign.

EXAMPLE.—We went to Tiffany, the *jeweler's* store.

Remark 6.—In the case of *a complex possessive*, the last word has the possessive sign.

EXAMPLES.—1. My son-in-law's farm—not son's-in-law.

2. Louis the *Sixth's* policy—not *Louis's* the Sixth.

Remark 7.—The possessive expression is generally, but not always, resolvable into an objective case preceded by *of*.

EXAMPLES.—1. A *philosopher's* plans = the plans of a *philosopher*.

2. An *angel's* idea—not equivalent to an idea of an *angel*.

Remark 8.—A succession of possessives, though syntactically correct, is more harmonious when resolved into objective equivalents.

EXAMPLE.—*My father's brother's son's wife* is my cousin by affinity = the wife of the son of my father's brother is my cousin by affinity.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Point out and correct the Syntactical Errors in the following sentences:*

1. The childrens hats are lying on the table.
2. Mans opinions are as often false as true.
3. We examined the flie's wings under-the microscope.
4. Those ladie's fans were purchased in New York.
5. The men found some mices' nests while plowing.
6. Geeses' feathers are worth more than ducks feathers.
7. My father's-in-law estate was sold to my brothers-in-laws sons.
8. I found some one's else umbrella in the hall.
9. Six Knights'-templar uniforms were shown to us.
10. Congress ordered ten aids-de-camps commissions to be printed.

III. The Objective Relation.

8. RULE III.—A noun or pronoun, used as the object of a transitive verb, is in the objective case.

EXAMPLES.—1. Washington crossed the *Delaware*.

2. The people welcomed *us* to their homes.

* After correcting, analyze and parse each sentence.

In the preceding examples the noun "Delaware" and the pronoun "us" are the objects respectively of the verbs "crossed" and "welcomed," according to Rule III.

SPECIAL RULE I.—Nouns denoting measurement of time, space, weight, or number, are in the objective case.

EXAMPLES.—1. We waited for the train ten *hours*.

2. The field is forty *rods* wide.

3. The Guinea-pig weighs three *pounds*.

4. I answered his question forty *times*.

SPECIAL RULE II.—After intransitive verbs, nouns of LIKE signification are in the objective case.

EXAMPLES.—1. These people lived a *life* of virtue.

2. In my slumbers I dreamed a *dream*.

3. They insisted that we should run a *race*.

Here the nouns "life," "dream," and "race," have a like signification with the verbs which they follow.

SPECIAL RULE III.—A noun or pronoun in the objective case is frequently used after transitive verbs in the passive voice.

EXAMPLES.—1. I was offered a good *position*.

2. The prisoner was allowed some *liberty*.

SPECIAL RULE IV.—A noun following the adjective WORTH, and denoting price, is in the objective case.

EXAMPLE.—The book is worth three *dollars*.

SPECIAL RULE V.—A noun or pronoun following the adjectives LIKE, NEAR, NEXT, NIGH, is in the objective case.

EXAMPLES.—1. There are not many like *him*.

2. We stood near the *mouth* of the cave.

SPECIAL RULE VI.—Many transitive verbs admit of two objectives after them.

EXAMPLES.—1. He asked *us* many *questions*.

2. We envied *him* his good *fortune*.

VERBS ADMITTING OF TWO OBJECTIVES.

Allow,	Draw,	Make,	Provide,
Ask,	Envy,	Offer,	Refuse,
Bring,	Fine,	Order,	Sell,
Buy,	Get,	Pay,	Send,
Cost,	Give,	Play,	Sing,
Deny,	Leave,	Present,	Teach,
Do,	Lend,	Promise,	Tell.

SPECIAL RULE VII.—A few transitive verbs have a second objective of like signification with the verb.

EXAMPLES.—1. The fellow *struck* him a hard *blow*.

2. Folly *leads* the fool a long *journey*.

Here the second objectives “blow” and “journey” are of like signification with the preceding verbs.

9. RULE IV.—A noun or pronoun following a preposition as its object, is in the objective case.

EXAMPLES.—1. The road led *through* the woods *to* the river.

2. *Under* the shadow of the *yew* the dead lie buried.

Here the nouns “woods,” “river,” “shadow,” and “yew,” following the several prepositions, are in the objective case.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Correct the Syntactical Errors in the following sentences:*

1. They asked him and I to arise.
2. Who do you think they will choose for a leader?
3. It is uncertain who we may trust.
4. I saw that him and me on every side were surrounded.
5. There is a difference of opinion between you and I.
6. Whom do you intend to call? I?

*After correcting, analyze and parse each sentence.

IV. The Independent Relation.

10. RULE V.—A noun or pronoun addressed is in the independent case. (See pages 68, 69.)

EXAMPLES.—1. Break on thy cold gray stones, O *Sea*!

2. But thou, O *Hope*, with eyes so fair!

3. O *Thou*, who makest and who breakest states!

Here the nouns "Sea" and "Hope" and the pronoun "Thou," being used in direct address, are in the independent case, according to Rule V

SPECIAL RULE I.—Nouns used pleonastically (see page 68) fall under Rule VI, and are in the independent case.

EXAMPLE.—The *fathers*! where are they?

SPECIAL RULE II.—Nouns and pronouns used in absolute participial clauses are in the independent case.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Napoleon* being overthrown, the Empire fell.

2. The *mail* arriving, the news was soon blown abroad.

3. *He* delaying, we were all delayed.

4. And *him* destroyed, or won to what may work his loss.

In these examples the italicized words are in the independent case. Observe that "him," as well as "he," may be used independently.

V. The Appositive Relation.

11. RULE VI.—A noun or pronoun, used to limit the meaning of another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing, is in the same case with the other noun or pronoun, by apposition.

EXAMPLES.—1. Bryant, the great *poet*, is dead.

2. Alexander, *king* of Macedon, conquered the Persians.

3. We referred the matter to Williams, the *lawyer*.

4. Such was Jefferson's opinion, the best *thinker* of his times.

Here the italicized words are in apposition with "Bryant," "Alexander," "Williams," and "Jefferson's," respectively.

Remark.—It will be noted that when a noun is in apposition with another noun in the possessive case, the appositive omits the possessive sign. (See above in example 4.)

Note.—The first six Rules of Syntax apply equally to nouns and pronouns; but the pronoun, having additional relations in sentential structure, requires additional rules.

VI. Pronominal Properties.

12. RULE VII.—A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Lincoln* is dead, but *he* still lives in history.

2. *Leaves* have *their* time to fall.

3. The *man* whose heart is selfish can not be great.

4. *Our* hopes, *our* fears are all with *thee*.

5. *They* who reach for every thing grasp nothing.

In examples 1, 2, and 3, the pronouns “he,” “their,” and “whose,” have the same gender, number, and person as their respective antecedents, “Lincoln,” “leaves,” and “man.” In example 4, the pronoun “our” has the same gender, number, and person as the names of the persons speaking, and the pronoun “thee” as the name of the person spoken to. In example 5, “they” has the same gender, number, and person as the names of the persons spoken of, and “who” the same as “they”—all according to Rule VII.

Remark.—The fourth property of the pronoun—that is, the case—is determined, not by its antecedent, but by the construction of the clause in which it stands.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *lad* whom we passed on the road was barefoot.

2. The *orator* whose speech so moved the crowd was blind.

Here the pronouns “whose” and “whom,” though deriving their gender, number, and person from their antecedents, take their case (the one possessive, the other objective) from the nature of the clauses in which they stand.

13. Since three of the properties of pronouns are derived from their antecedents, the principles which determine the properties of the antecedent should be observed. These principles are embraced in the following rules:

SPECIAL RULE I.—If the antecedent be a collective noun denoting unity—that is, if the reference be to the CLASS rather than to the INDIVIDUALS—the pronoun referring to such antecedent is in the singular number.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The *society* has *its* motto in Latin.
2. The *convention* was astonished at *its* own folly.

SPECIAL RULE II.—If the antecedent be a collective noun denoting plurality—that is, if the reference be to the INDIVIDUALS rather than the CLASS—the pronoun referring to such antecedent is in the plural number.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The *Senate* were divided in *their* opinions.
2. The *assembly* may do *their* own voting.

SPECIAL RULE III.—Two or more singular antecedents connected by the copulative conjunction AND, require the pronoun referring to them to be in the plural number.

EXAMPLE.—Cæsar *and* Napoleon conquered *their* enemies.

Remark 1.—If the antecedents be joined by any connective other than *and*, the pronoun is in the singular number; as, Cæsar, *as well as* Napoleon, conquered *his* enemies; but,—

Remark 2.—If *no* copulative be used between the antecedents, and the sense requires *and* to be supplied, the pronoun must be in the plural number; as, Alexander, Cæsar, Napoleon, conquered *their* enemies.

SPECIAL RULE IV.—Two or more singular antecedents connected by any disjunctive conjunction (see page 191) require the pronoun referring to them to be in the singular number.

- EXAMPLES.—1. Some tale *or* song will lend *its* charm.
2. Judgment *or* folly gave *its* hue to all.

SPECIAL RULE V.—If an antecedent be modified by the adjective MANY and the article A, the pronoun referring to it is generally in the singular number.

EXAMPLE.—*Many a* brave reformer has ended *his* life in a dungeon.

SPECIAL RULE VI.—Sometimes an antecedent modified by MANY A, takes a pronoun in the plural number.

EXAMPLE.—In Hawick twinkled *many a* light,
Behind him soon *they* set in night.

SPECIAL RULE VII.—Titles of books and essays, since they denote a single thing, require the pronoun in agreement to be in the singular number.

EXAMPLES.—1. Young's *Night Thoughts* is noted for *its* somber imagery.

2. Hallam's *Middle Ages* is praised for *its* erudition.

SPECIAL RULE VIII.—If the antecedent be qualified by a distributive adjective, the pronoun in agreement is in the singular number.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Every* one of the poets has *his* peculiar diction and imagery.

2. *Each* man, in such emergency, must choose for *himself*.

SPECIAL RULE IX.—Since in the English language there is no personal pronoun of undetermined gender in the singular number, third person, the masculine gender is taken by preference to express this relation.

EXAMPLE.—Every man and woman in this assembly should sign *his* name.

SPECIAL RULE X.—A noun or pronoun of any gender, number, or person, or a phrase, clause, sentence, or indefinite idea, may be represented by the pronoun IT.

EXAMPLES.—1. *It* is these *dreams* that trouble me.

2. *It* is *you* who have wasted opportunity.

3. *You* have chosen badly, and shall grieve for *it*.

4. *It* is all *Don't do this*, and *Don't do that*.
5. Come and trip *it* as you go.

SPECIAL RULE XI.—When the antecedents are of different persons the pronoun takes the first person by preference over the second, and the second over the third.

EXAMPLES.—1. *You, he, and I* have *our* rights as well as they.

2. *You and he* may take *your* books with you.

SPECIAL RULE XII.—After a collective antecedent, an antecedent denoting both persons and things, an antecedent modified by a superlative or the adjective *SAME*, or an antecedent consisting of the interrogative *WHO*,—the relative pronoun referring thereto is *THAT*, not *WHO*.

EXAMPLES.—1. An *army that* went to battle.

2. *Men and measures that* should be discussed.

3. The *wisest* prince *that* ever lived.

4. The *same* politician *that* spoke last year.

5. *Who that* dallies will win the race?

SPECIAL RULE XIII.—After an antecedent denoting an irrational being, an infant, or an inanimate thing, the relative *WHICH* is used.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *child which* was left, began to cry.

2. The *birds which* sang in spring have flown.

SPECIAL RULE XIV.—After antecedents denoting rational beings the relatives *WHO* (with its derived cases) and *THAT* are used.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *man who* sows, shall reap.

2. The *lady who* entered the car took the first seat.

3. The *poet that* went abroad has returned.

SPECIAL RULE XV.—After antecedents denoting things personified, the relative *WHO* is used.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *hare who* had been asleep now awoke.

2. The *beaver who* had come up, laughed heartily.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Point out and correct the Syntactical Errors in the following sentences : *

1. The nature of men is such that he must be governed.
2. The society is adjourned to meet in their own hall.
3. Washington, as well as Franklin, expressed their views in the convention.
4. Every officer and private as they passed by gave their usual salute.
5. The book called the *Unfortunates* found many to admire their style.
6. The brave leaders which conducted the war came home without honor.
7. I and you went to your homes at Christmas.
8. He and you should strive for a better grade in our classes.
9. If any one wishes to subscribe, let them give their names to the secretary.

VII. Adjectival Relation.

14. RULE VIII.—An adjective describes or limits the meaning of some noun or pronoun to which it belongs. (See pages ~~22~~³⁷, 96.)

- EXAMPLES.—1. *True* men never mock at *sincere* efforts.
 2. *Sly* inuendoes do more harm than *open* censure.
 3. He was *poor* but *courageous*.

In examples 1 and 2, the adjectives "true," "sincere," "sly," and "open," modify the meanings of the nouns to which they respectively belong. In 3, the adjectives "poor" and "courageous" modify the meaning of the pronoun "he," or of the noun for which it stands, according to Rule VIII.

Remark.—In their syntactical construction all adjectives (see pages 97, 98) fall under the general rule given above.

*After correcting, analyze and parse each sentence.

15. In the structure of a sentence the adjective holds one of **three relations**:

I. It is joined directly with the noun or pronoun which it modifies, and in such case is called **the Attributive Adjective**.

II. It is asserted, by a verb of imperfect predication, of the noun or pronoun to which it belongs, and in such case is called **the Predicative Adjective**.

III. It is joined with a noun or pronoun after the manner of a noun in apposition (see page 257), and in such case is called **the Appositive Adjective**.

EXAMPLES OF THE ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVE.—1. The *red* rose fell from the *withered* stem.

2. The *old* man raked up the *glowing* embers.

In these examples the qualities expressed by the various adjectives are simply attributed to the nouns to which they refer; that is, the qualities are *assumed as true* of these nouns. Such adjectives are examples of the class called *attributive*.

EXAMPLES OF THE PREDICATIVE ADJECTIVE.—1. His face was *pale*; his voice was *tremulous*.

2. The sky is *calm*; all nature seems *asleep*.

In these examples the qualities expressed by the various adjectives are not assumed as true, but are *asserted* of the nouns to which they belong. Such adjectives are examples of the class called *predicative*.

EXAMPLES OF THE APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE.—1. *Brave, refined*, and *chivalrous*, Sidney was the ideal of his age.

2. With this disposition, *clever, witty*, and *reckless*, Moore began his career.

In these examples the italicized adjectives are set, in the manner of a noun in apposition, against the nouns which they modify, and are called *appositive adjectives*.

Remark.—The adjective, whether attributive, predicative,

or appositive, retains its modifying or limiting power over the noun or pronoun to which it belongs.

SPECIAL RULE I.—In the case of the demonstratives *THIS* and *THAT*, with their plurals, the adjective must agree in number with the noun which it limits.

EXAMPLES.—*This* book; *These* flowers; *That* piano; *Those* pictures.

Remark.—No adjectives other than *this* and *that* have plurals. (See page 102.) Such expressions as *four-footed* beasts, *ten-feet* poles, etc., are wholly erroneous. The adjectives should be, *four-footed*, *ten-foot*, etc.

SPECIAL RULE II.—The distributives *EACH*, *EVERY*, *EITHER*, and *NEITHER* (see page 104), are joined with nouns in the singular number ONLY.

EXAMPLES.—*Each* tree; *Every* lily; *Either* road; *Neither* house.

SPECIAL RULE III.—The indefinites *ALL*, *ANY*, *NO*, *OTHER*, and *SOME*, are joined with nouns in either number.

EXAMPLES.—*All* animals, *all* the wheat; *Any* blossom, *any* blossoms; *No* leaf, *no* leaves; etc.

SPECIAL RULE IV.—After infinitives and participles, adjectives are sometimes used IN THE ABSTRACT—that is, without reference to any particular noun.

EXAMPLES.—1. To be *true* is to be *honored*.

2. Being *frugal* is one way of being *successful*.

Here the italicized adjectives express certain qualities in an abstract sense.

SPECIAL RULE V.—Adjectives are frequently used as nouns, the nouns to which they refer being omitted.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *great* have palaces of marble.

2. The *poor* ye have always with you.

SPECIAL RULE VI.—When a single object is modified by two or more adjectives and the article (AN or THE), the article is not repeated.

EXAMPLES.—1. *A red and white* rose (meaning one rose).

2. *The long, odd, useless* problem (meaning one problem).

SPECIAL RULE VII.—When two or more objects are modified by adjectives preceded by the article, the article is repeated for each object.

EXAMPLES.—1. *A red and a white* rose (meaning two roses).

2. *The long, the odd, and the useless* problem (meaning three problems).

SPECIAL RULE VIII.—When two or more nouns designate a single person or thing, the article is used with the first noun ONLY; otherwise it is repeated for each person or thing.

EXAMPLES.—1. *A* lawyer, doctor and mechanic (meaning one man).

2. *A* plow, hoe, rake, and harrow (meaning a compound implement).

3. *A* lawyer, *a* doctor, and *a* mechanic (meaning three persons).

4. *A* plow, *a* hoe, *a* rake, and *a* harrow (meaning four implements).

SPECIAL RULE IX.—When two or more appositives are joined to a noun and preceded by the article, the article is used with the first appositive ONLY.

EXAMPLE.—They chose Franklin, *the* philosopher, statesman, and wit.

SPECIAL RULE X.—The comparative degree of adjectives is used when ONLY TWO objects are compared; the superlative degree, when more than two are compared.

EXAMPLES.—1. The pine is *taller* than the cedar (two objects only).

2. Gold is *more valuable* than silver (two objects only).

3. This is the *fairest* day of the week (more than two objects).

Remark 1.—In comparisons, care must be taken that the thought be logically expressed.

EXAMPLES.—1. This story is *the best of all others*. Illogical; the expression should be, *best of all*.

2. This tree is *higher than all others*. Illogical; the expression should be, *highest of all*, or *higher than any other*.

3. This lesson is *more difficult than any* in the book. Illogical; the expression should be, *more difficult than any other*.

Remark 2.—Participial adjectives are construed syntactically just as common adjectives.

Remark 3.—Compound adjectives are parsed as simple adjectives qualifying the nouns with which they are joined.

EXAMPLES.—A *red-hot* iron; A *two-foot* stick; A *tender-eyed* daisy, etc.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Point out and correct the Syntactical Errors in the following sentences:

1. We measured the wall with a six-feet measure.
2. Every blossom and every flower perfume the air.
3. A black and red bird were sitting together.
4. The new and old house were both painted white.
5. A great and a good man has departed.
6. To-day we met Longfellow, the poet and the sage.
7. He is the tallest of all his brothers.
8. That story was the funniest of all the others.

VIII. The Predicative Relation.

16. RULE IX.—The verb-predicate of a sentence agrees with its subject-nominative in number and person.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *postman brings* the mail daily.

2. The *rivers flow* to the sea.

3. *I hear* their voices calling.

Here the verbs “brings,” “flow,” and “hear,” agree in number and person with their respective subjects, “postman,” “rivers,” and “I,” according to Rule IX.

SPECIAL RULE I.—If the subject be a collective noun (see page 51) denoting SINGULARITY, the verb is in the singular number.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *crowd was* dispersed by an officer.

2. A *committee was* appointed to consider the question.

SPECIAL RULE II.—If the subject be a collective noun denoting PLURALITY, the verb is in the plural number.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *jury have* been unable to agree.

2. The *company were* laughing and talking.

SPECIAL RULE III.—If the subject consist of two or more nouns in the singular united by the conjunction AND, the verb is in the plural number.

EXAMPLES.—1. Laughter *and* song *were* heard within.

2. Brother *and* sister *were* studying from the same book.

SPECIAL RULE IV.—If the subject consist of two or more nouns in the singular united by a disjunctive conjunction, the verb is in the singular number.

EXAMPLES.—1. An ash *or* maple *was* planted here.

2. *Neither* courage *nor* patriotism *was* shown in his conduct.

Remark.—In a few cases, when the second of two nouns in the subject of a sentence expresses an idea which is implied in the noun preceding *and*, the verb remains in the singular.

EXAMPLES.—1. Pride *and* self-conceit *is* ruinous.

2. Their safety *and* welfare *has* been considered.

3. The nature *and* purpose of the proceeding *was* this.

In such cases the syntax is doubtful, and the verbs *may* be correctly written in the plural.

SPECIAL RULE V.—If the subject-nominative and predicate-nominative be of different numbers, the verb agrees with THE FORMER.

EXAMPLE.—This *gold is* to me *goods, houses, and lands*.

SPECIAL RULE VI.—If two or more nouns in the singular number, joined by the conjunction AND, are preceded by the distributives EACH, EVERY, etc., the verb is in the singular.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Each sex and every age was* oppressed.
2. The judicial *and every* other power *is* accountable.

SPECIAL RULE VII.—If two nouns in the subject of a sentence, united by a disjunctive conjunction, are of different numbers, the verb agrees with THE NEAREST.

EXAMPLE.—A base *motive or baser hopes* incite him.

SPECIAL RULE VIII.—If the subject of a sentence be a word or expression which is plural only IN FORM, the verb is in the singular.

EXAMPLES.—1. *They is* a pronoun, and *are is* a verb.
2. Tennyson's *Two Voices is* a beautiful poem.

SPECIAL RULE IX.—If two subject-nominatives of a sentence be of different persons, the verb agrees with THE NEAREST.

EXAMPLES.—1. Neither he nor *I am* going.
2. Either you or *she is* mistaken.

17. RULE X.—The infinitive mode depends syntactically upon some word with which it is joined in construction.

EXAMPLES.—1. We made a *plan to cross* the river.
2. He urged *us to go* away at once.
3. They all *decided to stay*.
4. The doctor was *anxious to return*.
5. *Striving to help* others is benefiting ourselves.
6. *Where to go* we knew not.

In these examples the various infinitives depend respectively upon the noun "plan," the pronoun "us," the verb "de-

cided," the adjective "anxious," the participle "striving," and the adverb "where," according to Rule X.

Remark 1.—An infinitive has the same power of government as any other mode of the verb.

EXAMPLE.—The father exhorted his son *to speak* the truth.

Here the noun "truth," in the objective case, is governed by the infinitive "to speak."

Remark 2.—The sign *to* of the infinitive is often omitted.

EXAMPLES.—1. The old man bade him *follow* = *to follow*.

2. They made the culprit *confess* = *to confess*.

Remark 3.—An infinitive, having no subject-nominative, has neither number nor person.

18. RULE XI.—A participle has the syntactical construction of a verb, a noun, or an adjective.

SPECIAL RULE I.—The participle, when used as a verb, is parsed as a verb.

EXAMPLE.—We saw them *setting* a net for quail.

Here "setting" has the governing power of a verb—"net" being its object, according to Special Rule I.

Remark.—The participle, having no subject-nominative, has neither number nor person.

SPECIAL RULE II.—The participle, when used as a noun, is parsed as a noun.

EXAMPLE.—The *taking* of usury is unlawful.

Here "taking" is parsed as a noun.

SPECIAL RULE III.—The participle, when used as an adjective, is parsed as an adjective.

EXAMPLE.—The *chattering* wren is busy at her work.

Here "chattering" is parsed as an adjective.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Point out and correct the Syntactical Errors in the following sentences : *

1. These men, caring not for honor, was always wrong.
2. William and Mary was called to the throne.
3. Neither Tom with gun nor Hal with dogs were there.
4. The committee has failed to agree.
5. The class were dismissed at ten o'clock.
6. The House of Representatives have passed the bill.
7. There was, besides this, several other important reasons.
8. No tree, no shrub, no creeping vine grow in this desert.
9. Either you or I are deceived by the story.
10. This kind of pleasures effeminate the mind.

IX. The Adverbial Relation.

19. RULE XII.—An adverb modifies the verb, adjective, or adverb with which it is joined in construction.

- EXAMPLES.—1. The Americans *eagerly* pressed forward.
 2. Heavy clouds, *ominously black*, gathered in the west.
 3. You know *too well* the story of our thralldom.

Here the adverbs "eagerly," "ominously," and "too," modify respectively the verb "pressed," the adjective "black," and the adverb "well," according to Rule XII.

SPECIAL RULE I.—An adverb may modify an adjunct, a phrase, or a sentence.

- EXAMPLES.—1. We were walking *close by the river bank*.
 2. *Quietly stealing from his den*, the fox ran off.
 3. *Verily*, I say unto you.

Here the adverbs "close," "quietly," and "verily," modify respectively an adjunct, a phrase, and a sentence.

*After correcting, analyze and parse each sentence.

SPECIAL RULE II.—The modifying influence of an expletive (see page 178) is directed to no particular part of the sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. *There* was a man called John.

2. *Well*, you have heard the question.

3. *Aye*, in the catalogue ye pass for men.

SPECIAL RULE III.—A responsive adverb (see page 174) is syntactically equivalent to a sentence.

EXAMPLE.—Is he here? *No* = *He is not here*.

SPECIAL RULE IV.—An adverbial adjunct, being syntactically inseparable into parts, is to be parsed as a single word.*

EXAMPLE.—The time for parting is *at hand*.

SPECIAL RULE V.—When the QUALITY of an object, rather than the MANNER of an action, is to be expressed after a verb of imperfect predication, an adjective, and not an adverb, must be used.

EXAMPLES.—1. The moon shines *bright*—not *brightly*.

2. Your letter came *safe* to hand—not *safely*.

Remark 1.—Two negatives render the sentence in which they occur affirmative.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Nor* did he *not* return = He did return.

2. I did *not* know *unrest* = I knew rest.

Remark 2.—Emphatic repetitions of the same negative adverb do not render a sentence affirmative.

EXAMPLE.—He will *never* return, — *never, never*.

Remark 3.—Double negatives, other than those indicated in Remarks 1 and 2, are ungrammatical.

EXAMPLE.—He did *n't* recognize *none* of the company.

Remark 4.—The word modified by an adverb is frequently omitted.

EXAMPLE.—*Away*, thou puny tempter = *Go away*, etc.

*In Etymology, the adjunct is to be parsed *word by word*. (See page 183.)

Remark 5.—In correlative adverbial expressions the article *the* is, according to an English idiom, placed before contrasted adverbs or adjectives in the comparative and superlative degrees.

- EXAMPLES.—1. *The higher* we climb, *the fairer* the view.
2. Who acts *the noblest*, lives *the best*.

Remark 6.—Care must be taken not to use adjectives in the place of adverbs.

- EXAMPLES.—1. He did the work *easily*—not *easy*.
2. Harry declaimed *splendidly*—not *splendid*.

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Correct the Syntactical Errors in the following sentences:*

1. The flowers look beautifully.
2. All who were present appeared sadly.
3. The pinks smell sweetly as the breath of morn.
4. From books he never learned nothing.
5. A boy could not do that work, nor nobody else.
6. Water does not run up hill, nor never did.
7. He accomplished the task tolerable well.
8. Our friends came quicker than we expected.

X. The Prepositional Relation.

20. RULE XIII.—A preposition expresses the relation of a noun or pronoun to some other word.

- EXAMPLES.—1. Speak briefly *with* men of business.
2. A place *for* every thing, and every thing *in* its place.

Here the preposition “with” expresses the relation of “men” to “speak;” the preposition “of,” the relation of “business” to “men,” etc.

* After correcting, analyze and parse each sentence.

Remark.—Care must be taken that the preposition used shall properly express the given relation. The following table shows what prepositions are appropriate after certain words:

Accompanied <i>by</i> (of living things),	Copy <i>after</i> (a person),
Accompanied <i>with</i> (of inanimate things),	Copy <i>from</i> (a thing),
Accuse <i>of</i> ,	Correspond <i>with</i> ,
Acquaint <i>with</i> ,	Die <i>of</i> (a disease),
Agree <i>with</i> (a person),	Die <i>by</i> (violence),
Agree <i>to</i> (a proposition),	Different <i>from</i> ,
Agree <i>upon</i> (something at issue),	Disappointed <i>of</i> (what we fail to obtain),
Arrive <i>at</i> (a place),	Disappointed <i>in</i> (what does not meet expectation),
Arrive <i>in</i> (a city),	Divide <i>between</i> (two persons),
Attended <i>by</i> (living things),	Divide <i>among</i> (more than two),
Attended <i>with</i> (inanimate things),	Entrance <i>into</i> (a place),
Averse <i>to</i> ,	Entrance <i>upon</i> (a work),
Capacity <i>for</i> ,	Followed <i>by</i> ,
Charge <i>on</i> (a person),	Prefer <i>to</i> ,
Charge <i>with</i> (a crime),	Prevail <i>over</i> ,
Compare <i>with</i> (of qualities),	Profit <i>by</i> ,
Compare <i>to</i> (in illustration),	Reconcile <i>to</i> (a thing),
Comply <i>with</i> ,	Reconcile <i>with</i> (a person),
	Remonstrate <i>with</i> (a person),
	Remonstrate <i>against</i> (a thing).

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Correct the Syntactical Errors in the following sentences:

1. He divided his goods between his three sons.
2. Let us profit from the mistakes of others.
3. The French had different manners to what we expected.
4. I can not comply to your request.
5. Socrates was accused for teaching false doctrines.
6. Henry Clay has been compared to Demosthenes.

XI. The Conjunctive Relation.

21. RULE XIV.—A coördinative conjunction connects the coördinate parts of a sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. The ladies *and* gentlemen were seated.

2. The prelude was given *and* then the song was sung.

In these examples coördinate parts are connected by coördinative conjunctions, according to Rule XIV.

Remark 1.—By “coördinate parts” is meant such words, phrases, or clauses, as stand in *like relation* in the sentence.

Remark 2.—Dissimilar parts, or unlike constructions, should not be connected by coördinative conjunctions.

- | | | |
|-----|---|--|
| I. | { | 1. No man has, or ever will be, perfectly happy. <i>Incorrect.</i> |
| | | 2. No man has been, or ever will be, perfectly happy. <i>Correct.</i> |
| II. | { | 1. He might have, and perhaps did, regain his losses. <i>Incorrect.</i> |
| | | 2. He might have regained, and perhaps did regain, his losses. <i>Correct.</i> |

Remark 3.—Conjunctions used as mere introductory words have not the connective office, and are simple **Expletives**.

EXAMPLES.—1. *And* Moses said unto Pharaoh.

2. *So* you ask for a story, my children.

22. RULE XV.—A subordinative conjunction connects a subordinate with a superior element of a sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. The soul *that* slumbers is dead.

2. What will weak men do *if* strong men tremble?

Remark.—The conjunction used must be appropriate.

- | | |
|---|---|
| { | 1. He said <i>as</i> he believed the story. <i>Incorrect.</i> |
| | 2. He said <i>that</i> he believed the story. <i>Correct.</i> |

EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Correct the Syntactical Errors in the following sentences:

1. He neither could nor wished to know his lesson.
2. The angry boy would and did remain in his seat.
3. Rest has, is, and shall ever be necessary.
4. The fox was neither caught or scared.

XII. The Interjection.

23. RULE XVI.—An interjection has no syntactical relation with the sentence in which it occurs.

EXAMPLES.—1. *O* Time, the beautifier of the dead!

2. *Hark!* 'tis the cry of distant sentinels.

Here the interjections have no syntactical relation with the other parts of the sentence.

EXERCISES.

Analyze and parse the following sentences, applying the Rules of Synthesis:

1. I came, and saw, and conquered.
2. Princes and lords may flourish or may fade;
A breath unmakes them, as a breath hath made.
3. Deep in the wave is a coral grove,
Where the purple mullet and gold-fish rove.
4. Now to their mates the wild swans row,
By day they swam apart,
And to the thicket wanders slow
The hind beside the hart.
The wood-lark at his partner's side
Twitters his closing song,—
All meet whom day and care divide,
But Leonard tarries long.—*Scott.*

SECTION II.—RULES OF COLLOCATION.

24. Collocation is that branch of synthesis which treats of the position of words in sentences.

25. The position of words in sentences is determined by certain principles called **The Rules of Collocation.**

I. The Nominative Case.

26. RULE I.—A noun or pronoun in the nominative case precedes the verb of which it is the subject.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Rivers run* to the sea.

2. The *Koran is* the *Bible* of the Mohammedans.

Here the nouns “rivers” and “Koran” precede the verbs of which they are the subjects.

SPECIAL RULE I.—In imperative, interrogative and exclamatory sentences, the subject-nominative follows the verb.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Render* unto Cæsar the things that are Cæsar’s.

2. What *has he* in his basket?

3. How *break* the *billows* ’gainst the rocky shore!

In example 1, the subject (*thou* understood) follows the verb; in example 2, “he” follows “has;” and in example 3, “billows” follows “break.”

Remark.—If the verb in an interrogative sentence be in a compound tense, the subject-nominative follows *the auxiliary* and precedes *the principal verb*.

EXAMPLES.—1. What *has HE done* to merit censure?

2. How *did* the *BOY escape* the danger?

SPECIAL RULE II.—In colloquial style the subject-nominative follows the verbs *SAY, THINK, and a few others.*

EXAMPLES.—1. “I shall return to-night,” *said he.*

2. "If I can only get into the yard," *mused* the fox.

SPECIAL RULE III.—When, in forming the subjunctive mode, the conjunction IF is omitted, the subject-nominative follows the verb.

EXAMPLE.—*Were he* present to-day = *If he were*, etc.

SPECIAL RULE IV.—When, in the latter of two clauses, NEITHER or NOR is substituted for AND NOT, the subject-nominative follows the auxiliary in compound tenses.

EXAMPLE.—He answered with hesitation; *nor could* his voice be distinctly heard.

SPECIAL RULE V.—When a verb is preceded by the adverbs HERE, THERE, etc., the subject-nominative generally follows the verb.

EXAMPLE.—*Here stood* the temple of Neptune.

SPECIAL RULE VI.—When a sentence begins with an emphatic adjective, the subject-nominative follows the verb.

EXAMPLE.—*Great is* Diana of the Ephesians.

SPECIAL RULE VII.—When a sentence begins with the expletive THERE, the subject-nominative follows the verb.

EXAMPLE.—*There is* a volcano called Vesuvius.

27. RULE II.—The predicate-nominative follows the verb.

EXAMPLES.—1. Addison *was* an accomplished *essayist*

2. Pitt *became* a leader at twenty-five.

II. The Possessive Case.

28. RULE III.—A noun or pronoun in the possessive case precedes the noun denoting the thing possessed.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Men's homes* often go up in smoke.

2. *Our deeds* in peace are greater than *their deeds* in war.

Remark.—Sometimes the noun-possessive stands alone.

EXAMPLE. — Yonder is Mr. *Lee's* = Mr. Lee's *house*.

III. The Objective Case.

29. RULE IV. — A noun or pronoun in the objective case follows the word which governs it.

EXAMPLES. — 1. The reapers *bind* the *wheat* in *sheaves*.

2. The birds *begin* their *songs* at *dawn*.

Here the words "wheat," "sheaves," etc., follow the words by which they are governed.

SPECIAL RULE I. — A relative pronoun in the objective case generally precedes the governing verb.

EXAMPLE. — That is the *merchant* *whom* we *met* yesterday.

SPECIAL RULE II. — When a transposition occurs by which the subject-nominative follows the verb, the noun or pronoun in the objective case precedes the verb.

EXAMPLE. — *Silver* and *gold* *have* *I* none.

Remark 1. — The English idiom admits of considerable freedom in the position of the nominative and objective cases.

EXAMPLE. — *Me* *he* restored to mine office; *him* *he* hanged.

Remark 2. — The nominative and objective cases should never be so placed as to be mistaken the one for the other.

EXAMPLE. — When met the fiery *Greeks* the *Amazons*.

In this example it can not be determined whether the subject of the sentence is "Greeks" or "Amazons."

IV. The Independent Case.

30. RULE V. — A noun or pronoun in the independent case generally stands near the beginning of the sentence, but may occupy any other position.

EXAMPLES. — 1. The *fortress* taken, all is then our own.

2. Be all thy enemies like him, O *king*!

EXERCISES.

Illustrate the Rules for the Collocation of Nouns and Pronouns with two examples each.

V. The Adjective.

31. RULE VI.—The attributive adjective precedes the noun which it modifies.

EXAMPLE.—The *fragrant lily* lifts its *waxen cup*.

Here the attributive adjectives “fragrant” and “waxen” precede the nouns “lily” and “cup.”

SPECIAL RULE.—For emphasis or euphony the attributive adjective is sometimes placed after the noun which it modifies.

EXAMPLE.—With *shadow ominous* the cloud came on.

32. RULE VII.—The predicative adjective stands after the noun which it modifies.

EXAMPLES.—1. The *outcry* was *long* and *loud*.

2. *Matters* grew *worse* as the *plan* became *apparent*.

SPECIAL RULE.—When the subject-nominative follows a verb of imperfect predication, the predicative adjective precedes the verb.

EXAMPLE.—*Darker* and *sterner* became the old man's *face*.

33. RULE VIII.—The appositive adjective generally follows the noun which it modifies.

EXAMPLE.—The *grapes*, *purple* and *luscious*, hung above our heads.

EXERCISES.

Illustrate the Rules for the Collocation of Adjectives with two examples each.

VI. The Pronoun.

34. RULE IX.—Personal and relative pronouns follow their antecedents.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Men* tremble when *they* fear.

2. The *poet who* wrote this song is dead.

SPECIAL RULE I.—A personal pronoun, used without reference to any particular antecedent, stands at the beginning of the clause.

EXAMPLE.—*He* that despiseth books hateth knowledge.

SPECIAL RULE II.—A relative pronoun, used without an antecedent, stands at the beginning of the clause.

EXAMPLE.—*Who* steals my purse steals trash.

EXERCISES.

Illustrate with two examples each the Rules for the Collocation of Pronouns as it respects their antecedents.

VII. The Verb.

35. RULE X.—A verb in a finite mode stands between the subject-nominative and the object.

EXAMPLES.—1. The astronomer *calculates* eclipses.

2. The tides *follow* the moon.

SPECIAL RULE I.—A verb in the imperative mode generally stands at the beginning of the sentence.

EXAMPLE.—*Make* hay while the sun shines.

SPECIAL RULE II.—When the subject-nominative and the object following a verb are thrown out of their natural order, the verb may occupy any position in the sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. The culprit his own guilt *confesses*.

2. Thus *ruin* all his prospects did Mark Antony.

36. RULE XI.—A verb in the infinitive mode follows the word or expression on which it depends.

EXAMPLES.—1. We urged the *party to procure* guides.

2. Having *determined to speak*, he spoke.

EXERCISES.

Illustrate with two examples each the Rules for the Collocation of Verbs.

VIII. The Adverb.

37. RULE XII.—An adverb stands in juxtaposition with the word which it modifies.

EXAMPLES.—1. The hound *eagerly pursued* the hare.

2. The young man *complained bitterly* of his lot.

3. The lad appeared *extremely anxious*.

SPECIAL RULE I.—For purposes of emphasis the adverb may be separated from the word which it modifies.

EXAMPLE.—*Patiently* the willing horses *drag* the plow.

SPECIAL RULE II.—An adverb modifying a verb in a compound tense, stands after THE AUXILIARY and before THE PRINCIPAL VERB.

EXAMPLE.—We *could hardly believe* our senses.

Remark.—The insertion of an adverb between *to*, the sign of the infinitive, and the verb is erroneous.

EXAMPLE.—*To slowly trace* the forest's shady scene.

EXERCISES.

Illustrate with two examples each the Rules for the Collocation of Adverbs.

IX. The Preposition.

38. RULE XIII.—The preposition precedes the noun or pronoun which it governs.

EXAMPLE.—The man crept *along* the ravine, *through* the thicket, *to* the river.

SPECIAL RULE.—In poetical usage the preposition is sometimes placed after the noun or pronoun which it governs.

EXAMPLE.—From peak to peak, the rattling crags *among*.

X. The Conjunction.

39. RULE XIV.—The conjunction stands between the parts which it connects.

EXAMPLES.—1. English *and* French made common cause.
2. Some tribes were peaceable, *but* others were warlike.

XI. The Interjection.

40. RULE XV.—The interjection stands by preference at the beginning of the sentence in which it occurs.

EXAMPLES.—1. *Alas!* we are soon forgotten.
2. *Oho!* you are for that sport, are you?

EXERCISES.

I. Point out and correct the errors in Collocation in the following sentences:

1. Came on horseback with black hair a man unknown.
2. There in his face a look of anger was.
3. A book old and a pencil broken on the table lay.
4. Next a boy by the hand leading his sister passed.
5. To not speak at all is better than to too quickly speak.

II. Illustrate with two examples each the Rules for the Collocation of Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

SECTION III.—RULES OF PUNCTUATION.

41. Punctuation is that branch of synthesis which treats of the degrees of separation between sentences and parts of sentences, and of the marks by which such degrees of separation are denoted.

42. The grammatical separation between sentences and parts of sentences is either *complete* or *partial*.

1. Complete separation occurs between *sentences only*—that is, the grammatical connection between each sentence and every other is completely broken.

2. Partial separation occurs between *parts of sentences only*—that is, the connection between adjuncts, phrases, and clauses of a sentence is partly *broken* and partly *continuous*.

Remark 1.—The degree of separation between the parts of a sentence varies from the intimate union of a possessive and the noun which governs it to the slight connection between the clauses of a compound sentence.

EXAMPLE.—1. *Man's days* are few. *Close connection*.

2. Life is *short*: improve it well. *Slight connection*.

Remark 2.—The punctuation of a paragraph consists in marking every degree of separation between sentences and parts of sentences with an appropriate point.

43. The points and marks in use in the English language are of **two kinds**:

1. Those points which, in addition to marking the degree of grammatical separation, indicate a time-pause between the parts—called **Temporal Pauses**.

2. Those points and marks which determine or modify the meaning of the sentences or parts of sentences after which they are placed—called **Official Points**.

Remark 1.—The only practical difficulty in the application of Rule I. is in determining when a sentence is complete.

Remark 2.—The completeness of a sentence is determined by the completeness of the thought expressed by it. If the thought is complete, the sentence is complete. If the thought is incomplete, the sentence is incomplete.

Remark 3.—If the thought expressed in one clause seems to be a continuation or modification of the thought expressed in another clause, no period is admissible between them: the two clauses should be united in a complex or a compound sentence.

EXAMPLE.—Napoleon's strength was his ambition; and his ambition was his ruin.

Here the thought expressed in the second clause arises from the thought expressed in the first; and no period is admissible.

Remark 4.—If the thought expressed in one clause seems to spring from some source other than the thought expressed in the preceding clause, a period is used between the parts: the two clauses should constitute distinct sentences.

EXAMPLE.—Below us yawned the gorge a thousand feet in depth. An eagle passed on tireless pinion.

Remark 5.—Relative and hypothetical clauses are not sentences; their separation from the clauses on which they depend must always be marked by some pause less than a period.

EXAMPLES.—1. Some of the company knew the men, *who were anxiously waiting to be recognized.*

2. We hoped to finish the work by autumn—*if, indeed, we should ever finish it.*

Remark 6.—A relative clause may become a sentence by changing the relative into a demonstrative adjective; and in that case a period is used after each sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. We heard that the troopers had passed that way; *which fact was proved by the tracks of their horses.*

2. We heard that the troopers had passed that way. *This* fact was proved by the tracks of their horses.

47. RULE II.—A period should be placed after every abbreviated word.

EXAMPLES.—1. Hon. Thos. H. Benton was a member of the U. S. Senate for thirty years.

2. G. Washington, b. Feb. 11, 1732, O. S.; d. Dec. 14, 1799, N. S.

3. The accident occurred at 3 o'clock P. M., Tues., Nov. 1st.

4. The ship was lost off the E. coast of S. A., Jan. 20th.

5. A brilliant sketch of the Pr. of Orange may be found in Macaulay's Hist. of Eng., vol. iii., chap. 1.

Remark 1.—When it is intended that an abbreviated name shall be pronounced instead of the full name for which it stands, no period is used.

EXAMPLES.—*Ben* Jonson; *Tom* Jones; *Sam* Weller.

Remark 2.—Letters standing for mathematical quantities are not abbreviations, and do not require the period.

EXAMPLES.—1. Let ABC be a triangle having the angles A, B, and C.

2. Let x = the first part; y = the second part; and z = the third part. Then will $x + y + z$ = the whole.

Remark 3.—A letter used for a name in general, is not an abbreviation, and requires no period.

EXAMPLE.—*A's* estate = one-half of *B's* estate.

Remark 4.—Ordinal numbers, when composed in part of figures, are not regarded as abbreviations.

EXAMPLES.—April 24th; November 16th; 2d May; On the 1st of October; The 25th section; etc.

Remark 5.—The syllables *to*, *vò*, and *mo*, affixed to figures, to denote the character of printed volumes, are not abbreviations, and therefore do not require the period.

EXAMPLES.—4to = *quarto*; 8vo = *octavo*; 12mo = *duodecimo*; also 16mo, 24mo, 64mo, etc.

Remark 6.—Decimals are pointed off with the period; also, the denominations of sterling money when the letters (£., s., d.) follow the figures.

EXAMPLES.—4.5 ft.; 3.1416; £2, 8s. 4d.

EXERCISES.

I. In the following sentences insert Periods as required by the Rules:

1. From 8 A M to 1 P M we sat on deck conversing with Mr Lewis and Capt Jones The wind was S E; and the chart showed that we were about 40° N Lat

2. This completed the business The society then adjourned

3. Give to the hungry, bread Defer not till to-morrow the work of to-day

II. Illustrate with two examples each the different Rules for the use of the Period.

II. The Colon.

48. **RULE III.**—A colon should be placed between the clauses of a compound sentence when the connection is slight and the conjunction is omitted.

EXAMPLE.—Praise not too highly: leave that to flatterers.

Remark.—If the clauses are closely connected, or if the conjunction is used, a semicolon takes the place of the colon.

EXAMPLE.—Shun evil; but be not uncharitable.

49. **RULE IV.**—A colon should be placed between the major divisions of a long complex or compound sentence when the minor divisions are separated with semicolons.

EXAMPLE.—The grave of Sebastian Cabot is marked with no marble; the place of his burial is unknown; no tablet of bronze, erected by princes, bears the record of his daring: but his work is written on a continent, and his fame rendered imperishable.

50. RULE V.—A colon should be placed before a formal enumeration of particulars.

EXAMPLE.—Grammar is considered under three heads: first, Etymology; second, Syntax; third, Prosody.

51. RULE VI.—A colon should be placed before a quotation and matter having the form of a quotation when referred to by the words THIS, THUS, AS FOLLOWS, etc.

EXAMPLES.—1. Montgomery answered with *these words*: “Men of New York, you will not hesitate to follow me.”

2. We will manage the matter *thus*: first, we will fire a gun; then, etc.

52. RULE VII.—A colon should be placed after the introductory phrase of an address or letter.

EXAMPLES.—1. Ladies and Gentlemen: 2. My Dear Sir:

EXERCISES.

I. In the following sentences insert Colons and Periods as required by the Rules:

1. You have sometimes said *Yes*; you have sometimes said *No*; you have sometimes answered nothing how shall we reconcile such contradictions?

2. I say this It is better to do well than to say well

3. Mr President the question before us is one of importance

II. Illustrate with two examples each the Rules for the use of the colon.

III. The Semicolon.

53. RULE VIII.—The members of a compound sentence, unless short and closely connected, should be separated by semicolons.

EXAMPLE.—The procession went silently to the city of the dead; the funeral ceremonies were solemnly performed; the casket was put into its resting-place; and then the company turned silently from the place, sacred now forever.

Remark.—If the members of the sentence are short and closely connected, the comma takes the place of the semicolon.

EXAMPLE.—The bell rang, and the boys formed in line.

54. RULE IX.—A semicolon should be placed before an informal enumeration of particulars.

EXAMPLE.—There are four cases; the nominative, the possessive, the objective, and the independent.

Remark.—The difference between a formal and an informal enumeration of particulars, is that the formal enumeration is introduced by such words as *this*, *thus*, *as follows*, etc.; and the particulars are set off with such words as *first*, *second*, etc.

55. RULE X.—In a formal enumeration of particulars the particulars should be separated by semicolons.

EXAMPLE.—Our educational institutions may be classified as follows: first, universities and colleges; second, academies, seminaries and high-schools; third, common schools.

56. RULE XI.—When, in a long sentence, several clauses loosely connected have a common dependence, they should be separated by semicolons.

EXAMPLE.—When misfortune comes; when the fairest prospects fade away; when, on either hand, a limitless desert

stretches away to the sky ; then, indeed, do we realize the value of true friendship.

Remark.—If the clauses are short and closely connected the comma takes the place of the semicolon.

57. RULE XII.—A semicolon should be placed before the conjunction **FOR, BUT, or AND,** when used to introduce an explanatory, inferential, or contrasted clause.

EXAMPLES.—1. We had supposed that we should enter the city from the south ; *but* in this we were mistaken.

2. At this point we turned to the left ; *for* the forest of stalactites made it impossible to go straight ahead.

58. RULE XIII.—The semicolon should be placed before the words **AS, NAMELY, TO WIT, etc.,** when used to introduce examples.

EXAMPLES.—1. In English the diphthong *ou* generally has the sound of *ow* in *cow* ; *as, bound, found, sound.*

2. One vocation is universally despised ; *to wit,* the liar's.

EXERCISES.

I. In the following sentences insert according to the Rules the required Periods, Colons, and Semicolons :

1. This bird is fond of drilling holes in the dead limbs of trees and for this purpose he is furnished with a strong beak

2. The purpose of education is threefold first, to give us a complete intellectual and moral character second, to fit us for the duties of citizenship and third, to give us that inner riches which nothing can destroy

3. There are three divisions of time present, past, and future

4. Sometimes several letters are used to denote a single sound as in *beau, freight, etc*

II. Write five sentences requiring the Semicolon.

IV. The Comma.

59. RULE XIV.—Every parenthetical word, adjunct, phrase, and clause should be set off with commas.

EXAMPLES.—1. Franklin was, *unquestionably*, the greatest genius of his times.

2. This principle is, *without doubt*, fully established.

3. The debater, *eager to close*, confused his argument.

Remark 1.—A “parenthetical” word, adjunct, or phrase, is one which has the nature of a parenthesis.* Every such expression may be omitted without impairing the sentence.

Remark 2.—An adjunct which is merely *restrictive*—that is, inseparable from the part of the sentence with which it is associated—must not be set off with commas.

EXAMPLES.—1. The only kind *of ignorance* which is blissful is ignorance *of sin*.

2. The love *of nature* is beautiful; the love *of truth* is sublime.

Remark 3.—If a parenthetical expression *begins* or *ends* a sentence, only one comma is required, standing after the part at the beginning, or before it at the end.

EXAMPLES.—1. Of a certainty, haste makes waste.

2. The case is settled, beyond a doubt.

Remark 4.—The expression “set off with commas” signifies that the part so described has a comma on each side.

60. RULE XV.—If a compound subject consists of more than two parts, they must be separated by commas.

EXAMPLES.—1. Cities, towns, hamlets, and villages, were burned.

2. Merchants, manufacturers, and mechanics, have made common cause.

* See page 298.

Remark.—If the subject consists of two parts *only*, no comma must be used between them.

EXAMPLE.—Fruits and flowers were heaped on every hand.

61. RULE XVI.—The parts of a compound predicate connected by **AND, BUT, OR, NOR, etc.**, must, unless short and closely united, be separated by commas.

EXAMPLES.—1. I could see in the apartment no form or outline, *nor* any thing but smoke.

2. We here came to a range of hills, and some belts of woods running back from the river.

Remark.—If the two parts of a predicate are short and closely connected, the comma is omitted.

EXAMPLE.—He came and conquered.

62. RULE XVII.—A comma must be placed after the logical subject of a sentence when it ends with a verb, or when it consists of parts which are themselves separated by commas.

EXAMPLES.—1. Those who study, should study with a will.

2. Carts, wagons, and omnibuses, were packed together.

63. RULE XVIII.—Appositional expressions should be set off with commas.

EXAMPLES.—1. Napoleon, *the emperor*, died in St. Helena.

2. May, *the month of song and flowers*, is here.

Remark 1.—If the word in apposition is necessary to complete the predication, no comma is used.

EXAMPLES.—They elected him *President*.

Remark 2.—The parts of a compound proper name, unless inverted from their natural order, are inseparable.

EXAMPLES.—Marcus Tullius Cicero; Adams, John Quincy.

64. RULE XIX.—An adjunct, phrase, or clause, transposed from its natural position, is set off with a comma.

EXAMPLE.—{ 1. Sleep is essential to all animals.
2. To all animals, sleep is essential.

65. RULE XX.—All words, phrases, etc., in independent construction (see pages 68; ~~212~~²¹⁶, IV.) must be set off with commas.

EXAMPLES.—1. Blow, bugle, blow.

2. I appeal, men of Athens, to your judgment.

66. RULE XXI.—The members of a compound sentence, if short and closely connected, are separated by commas. (See page 289, 53, Remark.)

EXAMPLES.—1. Leaves were green, and birds were gay.

2. He went away, but quickly came again.

67. RULE XXII.—When, to avoid repetition, a verb is omitted, its place is marked with a comma.

EXAMPLE.—Some came to see; others, to hear.

68. RULE XXIII.—Words repeated for emphasis should be set off with commas.

EXAMPLE.—Verily, verily, I say unto you.

69. RULE XXIV.—The comma should be used between correlative clauses.

EXAMPLE.—As thy days, so shall thy strength be.

Remark.—If the correlative clauses are introduced by *so that*, *rather than*, or *more than*, the comma is not required, owing to the closeness of the construction.

EXAMPLES.—1. We would *rather* return *than* remain.

2. He *so* demeaned himself *that* all were pleased.

70. RULE XXV.—Pairs of words are separated by commas.

EXAMPLE.—Good and evil, prosperity and misfortune, joy and sorrow, sunshine and storm, are strangely blended in the life of man.

71. RULE XXVI.—Words introduced into a quotation are set off with commas.

EXAMPLE.—“An honest man’s word,” says the proverb, “is as good as his bond.”

72. RULE XXVII.—A comma must be placed before the infinitive mode when it expresses a purpose.

EXAMPLE.—We tarried awhile at Springfield, to see the tomb of Lincoln.

73. RULE XXVIII.—A comma is sometimes used in order to prevent ambiguity.

1. He was overtaken perhaps, while sleeping.
2. He was overtaken, perhaps while sleeping.

General Remark 1.—In cases of doubtful or contradictory usage the comma should be omitted.

EXAMPLE.—We hurried up and saw the pony dancing.

General Remark 2.—A long sentence does not necessarily require commas, nor does a short sentence preclude them.

EXAMPLES.—1. It is difficult for men who have for half a life-time been accustomed to have their own way in their dealings with their fellow-men to bear patiently the humiliation and chagrin of seeing others preferred and honored above themselves.

2. No, sir; no, sir—I answer you, *No, no.*

In example 1, no pause is used except a period; in example 2, seven pauses are required.

EXERCISES.

I. In the following sentences insert whatever Temporal Pauses are required by the Rules:

1. If fortune plays false do thou play true
2. Of the five senses sight is the most precious
3. A professed Catholic he imprisoned the Pope
4. There are five modes the indicative the subjunctive the potential the imperative and the infinitive
5. Sink or swim live or die survive or perish I give my hand and my heart to this vote
6. "A thing of beauty" says Keats "is a joy forever"
7. The last stage of his career is this behold him spitted with dozens of his corpulent companions and served up a vaunted dish on the table of some Southern gastronome—*Irving*

II. Illustrate with two examples each the various Rules for the use of the Comma.

II. OFFICIAL POINTS.

I. The Interrogation Point.

74. RULE.—An interrogation point must be placed after every interrogative sentence, clause, phrase, or word.

- EXAMPLES.—1. Have you repeated the story to others?
 2. He simply answered, "Who told you so?"
 3. It is easy enough going up; but how shall we descend?

Remark 1.—Sentences which merely assert that a question has been asked, do not require the interrogation point.

EXAMPLE.—He asked me how long I would remain.

Remark 2.—If the exact words of a question are quoted the interrogation point must stand *inside of the quotation points*.

EXAMPLE.—They called out, "Are you ready?"

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences insert whatever Points are required by preceding Rules:

1. Whom have we here
2. Shall the nations again go back to barbarism
3. How in such an emergency shall justice be done
4. They replied by asking whether these things were so.
5. "What to me are difficulties" said Napoleon

II. The Exclamation Point.

75. RULE.—An exclamation point must be placed after every exclamatory sentence, clause, phrase, or word.

EXAMPLES.—1. How silently the starlight falls to-night!

2. Hark! the music of the mountain reed.

3. O sovereign Blanc! O dread and silent Mount!

Remark 1.—All interjections, except the vocative particle *O*, and the interrogatives *eh* and *hey*, require the exclamation point, according to the general rule.

Remark 2.—In a succession of exclamatory clauses having a common dependence, but one exclamation point is required.

EXAMPLE.—How fresh, how green, how fragrant, how full of life, are these meadows!

Remark 3.—In a succession of exclamatory clauses having a common dependence on some preceding part, the exclamation point is repeated with each clause.

EXAMPLE.—How fresh are these meadows! how green! etc.

Remark 4.—An interjection sometimes blends with a short exclamatory expression so as to require but one point—which stands *after the complete expression*.

EXAMPLES.—Fie upon such work! Aroint thee, witch!

Remark 5.—Sometimes, when the exclamatory expression is not impassioned, a comma is used for the exclamation point.

EXAMPLE.—O gentle waves, ye kiss the pebbly beach.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences insert whatever Points are required by preceding Rules:

1. O rose of May O flower too soon faded
2. Save me and hover o'er me with your wings
You heavenly guards—What would your gracious figure
3. Alas how is't with you
That you do bend your eye on vacancy—*Shakespeare*
4. What silent still and silent all
Ah no the voices of the dead
Sound like a distant torrent's fall—*Byron*

III. The Dash.

76. RULE.—A dash is used to mark a suspension or sudden change in the sense, or a break in the construction of a sentence.

EXAMPLES.—1. "We have come into the den of a—" Here he was startled by a fearful cry.

2. "I think I—I—I—" "No, you don't," said the wag.

3. He was born a simpleton, and—has remained so.

Remark 1.—Between a side-head and the subject-matter of a paragraph a dash is used *after a period* (see after "EXAMPLES" on this page).

Remark 2.—Between the subject-matter of a quoted paragraph and the author's name a dash is used after a period.

Remark 3.—When the formal introductory words of an ad-

dress stand in a line by themselves a dash should be used after the colon.

EXAMPLE. — Ladies and gentlemen:—

We have met this evening, etc.

Remark 4.—When, at the close of a logical subject consisting of several parts separated by commas or semicolons, the words *all, these, such*, etc., are used to sum up the several particulars, a dash follows the comma preceding the predicate.

EXAMPLE. — To wander from door to door; to be insulted in the street; to be hooted at and despised; to be left alone, perishing of hunger and cold,—such is the beggar's fate.

EXERCISES.

In the following sentences insert whatever Points are required by preceding Rules:

1. Look if he turns color Pray you no more
2. "This is a a a" "Bad business" said the stranger
3. I will send him this No not to-day
4. Act act in the living Present
Heart within and God o'erhead *Longfellow*

IV. The Parenthesis.

77. A **Parenthesis** is an expression inserted in a sentence by way of comment or explanation, but independent in construction.

- EXAMPLES.—1. Mr. Clay (of Kentucky) then arose.
2. He intends (so it appears) to return to-morrow.

78. RULE.—Marks of parenthesis are used to inclose expressions inserted in a sentence to modify or explain the leading statement, when such expressions break the connection between dependent parts.

- EXAMPLES.—1. Every star (so astronomy teaches) is a sun.
2. Must you (I fear you must) lose all your trouble?

Remark 1.—In dramatic compositions and dialogues, side remarks and stage directions are inclosed in parentheses.

EXAMPLE.—Go, get him surgeons. (*Exit Soldier.*)

Remark 2.—If a parenthesis is complete in construction and sense, a period, an exclamation or interrogation point may be used before the last curve. (See after “Soldier,” above.)

Remark 3.—If the matter within a parenthesis is incomplete in sense, no pause is admissible before the last curve. (See Example 2, under Rule above.)

Remark 4.—Matter within a parenthesis should be punctuated as the same matter in any other position.

Remark 5.—If a comma, semicolon, or colon is demanded in the position occupied by the parenthesis, the pause usually stands *after the last curve*.

EXAMPLE.—If hope comforts us (and who can doubt it?), let us hope.

EXERCISES.

Insert in the following sentences whatever Points are required by preceding Rules:

1. I fear the gentleman Mr Wilson has mistaken the point
2. Back slaves I will return *He rushes out*
3. All men so the Declaration has it are created equal

IV. Brackets.

79. RULE I.—Brackets are used in quoted passages to correct what is manifestly a mistake, to inclose some word or words omitted by the author, or to mark manifestations of approval or dissent in public speeches.

- EXAMPLES.—1. Each one had gone to their [his] home.
 2. The lad lost his knife, and now [he has] found it again.

80. RULE II.—Brackets are used in lexicography to inclose the pronunciation of words.

EXAMPLES.—Phthisic [tĭz'-ik], *n.*; Mirage [mĭ-rāzh], *n.*

Remark 1.—Sometimes brackets are used, as are marks of parenthesis, to inclose directions to performers, etc., in dramatic compositions.

Remark 2.—The matter within brackets is punctuated in the same manner as matter within parenthesis. (See Remarks 2 and 3, page 299.)

V. Quotation Marks.

81. RULE.—Quotation marks are used to inclose matter cited from another author or speaker.

- EXAMPLES.—1. "Life is real," says the poet.
 2. "Liberty and Union," were the words of Webster.
 3. "We are now," said the guide, "nearing the summit."

Remark 1.—When the substance only of an extract is given, the quotation marks are not required.

EXAMPLE.—Franklin said *that if we shun pleasure it will follow us.*

Remark 2.—The titles of books and of other literary productions, as well as quotations from foreign languages, are generally set in *Italics*, without the quotation marks.

EXAMPLES.—Tennyson's *Enoch Arden*; The London *Spectator*; He said, *Pax vobiscum.*

Remark 3.—A quotation within a quotation is set off with single points.

EXAMPLE.—"Do you believe 'a penny saved is a penny earned'?" said my friend.

Remark 4.—If matter quoted consists of several paragraphs or of stanzas of poetry, the inverted commas stand at the beginning of *each paragraph* or *stanza*, and the apostrophes at the end of *the last* only.

Remark 5.—Matter quoted must be otherwise punctuated as though no quotation marks were used.

VII. The Apostrophe.

82. RULE.—The apostrophe is used to distinguish the possessive case of nouns (see page 66), or to mark the omission of a letter or letters from a word.

EXAMPLE.—'Tis e'en too late; give o'er; the old man's work is done.

VI. The Hyphen.

83. RULE.—The hyphen is used to indicate the divisions of syllables (see page 18), especially where, in writing or printing, a word is divided at the end of a line (see the word "sentence" in 85. Rule, below), and to separate the parts of a compound word.

EXAMPLES.—Sea-water; bone-dust; chamois-skin.

VIII. The Brace.

84. RULE.—The brace is used to connect several words or expressions having a common dependence on some other part. (See Scheme of the Noun, page 52.)

IX. The Asterisk.

85. RULE.—The asterisk is affixed to any part of a sentence to which it is desired to append a foot-note—and also to the note. (See page 129.)

Remark.—When more than one note is desired the dagger (†) is used in the same manner as the asterisk. (See page 54.)

XIV. The Diæresis.

86. RULE.—The diæresis is placed over the second of two contiguous vowels, to indicate that they do not constitute a diphthong.

EXAMPLES.—Zoölogy; aëronaut; coäalition.

Remark.—In current usage the hyphen is improperly employed instead of the diæresis.


XI. The Caret.


87. RULE.—The caret occurs in manuscript only, and is used to indicate the omission of some part which is interlined above.

truth	e
^	^

EXAMPLE.—We hold this to be self-evidnt.

XII. The Index.


88. RULE.—The index [>] is used to call particular attention to some sentence or paragraph.

EXAMPLE.—> Remember, when you are in the city, to visit the Emporium.

XIII. Marks of Ellipsis.

89. RULE.—When a part of a word is omitted the omission is marked with an extended dash [———], a series of asterisks [*****], or a succession of periods [.....].

XIV. The Paragraph and Section.

90. RULE.—The principal and subordinate divisions of a subject may be marked respectively with the paragraph [>] and the section [§].

Remark.—The paragraph and the section are not much employed in current usage.

XV. The Cedilla.

91. RULE.—In words derived from French the letter *c*, occurring in a position to have the sound of *κ*, is rendered soft by the cedilla.

EXAMPLES.—Façade; garçon; etc.

XVI. Quantity Marks.

92. RULE.—The macron [—] and the breve [˘] are used to indicate respectively the long and the short sound of the vowels over which they are placed.

XVII. Accents.

93. RULE.—The acute, the grave, and the circumflex accents [ˊ ˋ ˆ] are used to indicate respectively a sharp, a depressed, and a wave sound of the syllable over which the accent is written.

Remark.—In elocution the acute accent indicates a rising inflection; the grave, a falling inflection; and the circumflex, a combination of the two effects.

EXERCISE.

Illustrate the uses of the various Points—from Brackets to Accents inclusive—with two examples each.

SECTION III.—FIGURES.

94. Any intentional deviation from the established forms of language is called a **Figure of Speech**.

95. Deviations from the established grammatical forms of the English language are of **three kinds**:

I. Deviations from the authorized *spelling* of words—called **Figures of Orthography**.

II. Deviations from the established *forms* of words—called **Figures of Etymology**.

III. Deviations from the ordinary *construction* of words—called **Figures of Syntax**.

I. Figures of Orthography.

96. Figures of orthography—that is, deviations from the ordinary spelling of words—are *two in number*:

I. The spelling of words according to ancient usage—called **Archaism**; as,—

- { 1. *Whanne* that *Aprilis* with his *shoures sote*; for—
- { 2. *When* that *April* with his *showers sweet*.

II. The spelling of words in imitation of a false pronunciation—called **Mimesis**.

EXAMPLES.—1. "*Vell*, I think it is *rayther* good," said Sam.

2. "*Wot* I like in that '*ere writin*'," said Mr. Weller, "is that there *a'n't* no *Wenuses* in it."

EXERCISES.

Illustrate the figures of Archaism and Mimesis with five examples each.

II. Figures of Etymology.

97. Figures of etymology—that is, deviations from the ordinary forms of words—are *eight in number*:

I. The elision of a letter or letters from the beginning of a word—called **Aphæresis**.

EXAMPLES.—'*Neath* the shade; '*Mid* the waves; '*Bove* the mountains.

II. The elision of a letter or letters from the middle of a word—called **Syncope**.

EXAMPLES.—*O'er* the hills; *E'en* to death.

III. The elision of a letter or letters at the end of a word—called **Apocope**.

EXAMPLES.—*Thro'* forests wild; *Th'* ages past.

IV. The prefixing of a letter or letters to a word—called **Prosthesis**.

EXAMPLES.—*A*down the hill; *Bedecked* with flowers.

V. The annexing of a letter or letters to a word—called **Paragoge**.

EXAMPLES.—*Withouten* end; The *vasty* deep.

VI. The condensing of two syllables into one—called **Synæresis**.

EXAMPLES.—Thou *stalk'st* alone; The *wing'd* creature.

VII. The condensing of two words into one—called **Crasis**.

EXAMPLES.—*I'll* go myself; *Thou'lt* not deceive.

VIII. The separating of the parts of a compound, and the introduction of a word or words between them—called **Tmesis**.

EXAMPLES.—*What* things *soever*; *To* us *ward*.

EXERCISES.

Illustrate the Figures of Etymology with two examples each.

III. Figures of Syntax.

98. Figures of syntax—that is, deviations from the ordinary construction of words—are *six in number*:

I. The omission of a word or words necessary to the gram-

matical construction, but not necessary to the sense, of a sentence—called **Ellipsis**. (See page 219.)

EXAMPLE.—Who will succeed, must try = *He* who will, etc.

II. The use of more words than are necessary to the grammatical construction—called **Pleonasm**. (See page 68.)

EXAMPLE.—The *fathers!* where are *they?*

III. The use of one part of speech, or one modification of a word, for another—called **Enallage**.

EXAMPLES.—1. The foe fought *fierce* [fiercely].

2. Come when the seals are *broke* [broken].

IV. The construing of words according to their sense, in violation of grammatical principles—called **Syllepsis**.

EXAMPLES.—1. Nelson proceeded to Copenhagen and bombarded *them* [it].

2. The moon looked through *her* [its] robe of clouds.

In example 2, the syllepsis is occasioned by a kind of personification—one of the figures of Rhetoric. (See page 56.)

V. The transposition of a word from its true place as determined by the rules of collocation—called **Hyperbaton**.

EXAMPLE.—He stands the tombs among = among the tombs.

VI. The agreement of a verb or adjective with a remote word already demanded by the syntax of the clause in which it occurs—called **Zeugma**.

EXAMPLE.—Here *was* the chariot; here, the *arms*.

Here the noun “arms” is joined in construction with the verb “was”—by the figure of zeugma.

EXERCISES.

Illustrate the Figures of Syntax with two examples each.

PART III.

PROSODY.

CHAPTER XIV.

I. FIRST PRINCIPLES.

1. **PROSODY** is that department of grammar which treats of the principles and construction of verse.

2. An examination of English words will show—

1. That every syllable is either accented or unaccented.
2. That the accented syllables may fall without regularity or order.
3. That the accented syllables may recur in a regular order.

3. When the words of a sentence are so arranged that the accented syllables recur without regularity or order, the language is called **Prose Language**.

EXAMPLE.—Nations as well as men, fail in nothing which they **boldly undertake**.

In this example the accented syllables recur without regularity or order.*

4. When the words of sentences are so arranged that

* Syllables having the accent are set in **Gothic type**—unaccented syllables, in Roman type.

the accented syllables recur in a regular order, the language is called **Metrical Language**.

EXAMPLE.—And still they gazed and still the wonder grew,
That one small head could carry all he knew.

Here the accented syllables recur in a regular order, and the language is metrical.

5. A single line of metrical language is called a **Verse**.

Remark.—The word *verse* is sometimes incorrectly used instead of *stanza*. A stanza is a number of metrical lines combined according to a regular system: each line of metrical language constitutes a verse.

6. Principle.—Every verse may be divided into as many parts as there are primary accents.

EXAMPLES.—1. Hast thou | a charm | to stay | the morn- |
ing star?

2. And the might | of the Gen- | tile uns- | mote | by the sword,
Hath melt- | ed like snow | from the glance | of the Lord.

3. Tell me | not in | mournful | numbers
Life is | but an | empty | dream.

Each of these verses is divided into as many parts as there are primary accents in the verse. It will be seen that the divisions sometimes consist of two and sometimes of three syllables.

II. FEET.

7. The divisions of a verse determined by the above Principle are called **Feet**.

1. If the division consists of two syllables, it is called a **Dis-syllabic Foot**.

2. If the division consists of three syllables, it is called a **Trisyllabic Foot**.

8. The dissyllabic feet used in verse are of **four kinds**:

I. The **Iambus**, consisting of an unaccented followed by an accented syllable, as in *com-pel*, *re-mote*—marked thus: *u, a*.*

II. The **Trochee**, consisting of an accented followed by an unaccented syllable, as in *fa-ther*, *ten-der*—marked thus: *a, u*.

III. The **Spondee**, consisting of two accented syllables, as in *dark days*, *loud winds*—marked thus: *a, a*.

IV. The **Pyrrhic**, consisting of two unaccented syllables, as in *me-te-or*, *pith-i-ly*—marked thus: *u, u*.

Remark 1.—The greater part of verse in the English language is written in the iambic foot. This foot is well adapted to description and narration.

Remark 2.—The trochee is much used, and is adapted to song-writing and the expression of gay and tender sentiments.

Remark 3.—The spondee and the pyrrhic are only used to vary the form of verses which are written in iambic or trochaic feet. A verse is rarely composed entirely of spondees, and never wholly of pyrrhic feet.

9. The trisyllabic feet used in English verse are of **eight kinds**:

I. The **Anapest**, consisting of two unaccented followed by an accented syllable, as in *un-der-take*, *to be-lieve*, in a *day*—marked thus: *u, u, a*.

II. The **Dactyl**, consisting of an accented followed by two unaccented syllables, as in *fort-unate*, *won-der-ful*, *strive to-day*—marked thus: *a, u, u*.

III. The **Amphibrach**, consisting of an unaccented, an ac-

* *a* = accented; *u* = unaccented.

cented, and an unaccented syllable, as in **con-fess-ing**, **re-luc-tant**—marked thus: **u, a, u.**

IV. The Amphimacer, consisting of an accented, an unaccented, and an accented syllable, as in **un-der-foot**, **twice he spoke**—marked **a, u, a.**

V. The Bacchius, consisting of an unaccented followed by two accented syllables, as in the **brave dead**, the **great dead**—marked thus: **u, a, a,**

VI. The Antibacchius, consisting of two accented followed by an unaccented syllable, as in **strong handed**, **deep caverns**,—marked **a, a, u.**

VII. The Molossus, consisting of three successive accented syllables, as in **true man-hood**, **long, hot days**—marked **a, a, a.**

VIII. The Tribrach, consisting of three successive unaccented syllables, as in **indis-pu-ta-ble**, **cür-so-ri-ly**—marked thus: **u, u, u.**

Remark 1.—Of the trisyllabic feet only the anapest and the dactyl are in common use. The remaining six feet are never used except to vary the form of verses composed in anapests or dactyls.

Remark 2.—Anapestic verse is well adapted to the writing of songs and to the expression of thrilling narrative and heroic emotions.

Remark 3.—Dactylic verse is very difficult to compose, and is chiefly used in narrative and reflective poetry.

TABLE OF DISSYLLABIC FEET.

1. Iambus u, a.	3. Spondee a, a.
2. Trochee a, u.	4. Pyrrhic u, u.

TABLE OF TRISYLLABIC FEET.

1. Anapest. u, u, a.	5. Bacchius u, a, a.
2. Dactyl a, u, u.	6. Antibacchius . a, a, u.
3. Amphibrach . u, a, u.	7. Molossus a, a, a.
4. Amphimacer . a, u, a.	8. Tribrach u, u, u.

10. As it respects the feet comprising it, a verse is either **pure** or **mixed**.

1. If the feet composing a verse are all *of one kind*, the verse is said to be **pure**.

EXAMPLE.—The isles | of Greece, | the isles | of Greece,
Where burn- | ing Sap- | pho loved | and sung.

In this example the feet composing the two verses are all iambi, and the verses are therefore *pure*.

2. If the feet composing a verse are *of different kinds*, the verse is said to be **mixed**.

EXAMPLE.—Our plains | are broad | and our riv- | ers run
From the North- | land down | to the land | of
the Sun.

In this example the feet composing the two verses are part iambi and part anapests, and the verses are therefore *mixed*.

11. The last foot of a verse frequently varies from the typical foot composing the verse.

1. The last foot may lack a syllable of being complete, and in that case the verse is said to be **Catalectic**.

EXAMPLE.—Be a | hero | in the | strife [].

This verse is composed of trochees; a syllable is lacking to complete the last foot, and the verse is called *catalectic*.

2. The last foot of a verse may contain a redundant syllable, and in that case the verse is said to be **Hypercatalectic**.

EXAMPLE.—Then out | spoke brave | Hora- | tius.

This verse is composed of iambi; the last foot has the redundant syllable *tius*, and the verse is called *hypercatalectic*.

3. A verse having the last foot complete is **Acatalectic**.

EXAMPLE.—Sleep the | sleep | that knows not | breaking.

EXERCISES.

I. Name the several varieties of Feet employed in the following verses:

1. By torch and trumpet fast arrayed,
Each horseman drew his battle-blade.— *Campbell*.
2. Lives of great men all remind us
We can make our lives sublime.— *Longfellow*.
3. Like the leaves of the forest when autumn hath blown,
That host on the morrow lay withered and strown.
4. One more unfortunate,
Rashly importunate,
Gone to her death.— *Hood*. — *Byron*.

II. Select specimens of Iambic, Trochaic, Anapestic, and Dactylic verse.

III. METER.

12. The character of a verse, according to the number of feet which compose it, is called its **Meter**.

1. A verse containing a single foot is called a **Monometer**.

EXAMPLE.—Think of it,
Drink of it!

Each of these verses contains a single foot—a dactyl—and is therefore *a dactylic monometer*.

2. A verse containing two feet is called a **Dimeter**.

EXAMPLE.—From its **source**- | es which **well**
In the **tarn** | on the **fell**.

Each of these verses contains two feet—anapests—and is therefore *an anapestic dimeter*.

3. A verse containing three feet is called a **Trimeter**.

EXAMPLE.—Then the | **roar** came | nearer
Louder | still and | clearer.

Each of these verses consists of three feet—trochees—and is therefore a *trochaic trimeter*.

4. A verse containing four feet is called a **Tetrameter**.

EXAMPLE.—The sun || upon | the lake | is low,
The wild | birds hush | their song.—*Scott*.

Each of these verses consists of four feet—iambi—and is therefore an *iambic tetrameter*.

5. A verse containing five feet is called a **Pentameter**.

EXAMPLE.—Old pol- | iti- | cians chew | on wis- | dom past
And tot- | ter | on in busi- | ness to | the last.

Each of these verses is an *iambic pentameter*.

6. A verse containing six feet is called a **Hexameter**.

EXAMPLE.—The hills | and val- | leys ring, | and e'en | the
ech- | oing air
Seems all | composed | of sounds | about | them
ev- | ery-where.—*Drayton*.

Each of these verses is an *iambic hexameter*.

7. A verse containing seven feet is called a **Heptameter**.

EXAMPLE.—Press where | ye see | my white | plume shine |
amidst | the ranks | of war,
And be | your or- | iflamme | to-day | the hel- |
met of | Navarre.—*Macaulay*.

Each of these verses is an *iambic heptameter*.

EXERCISES.

I. Name the Meters of the following verses:

1. The shout was hushed on lake and fell,
The monk resumed his muttered spell.—*Scott*.

2. On the mountains of the prairie,
By the great red pipe-stone quarry.—*Longfellow*.
3. And the widows of Asher are loud in their wail,
And the idols are broke in the temple of Baal.—*Byron*.
4. Room for him into the ranks of humanity,
Give him a place in your kingdom of vanity!

II. Select specimens of verse in Trimeter, Tetrameter, and Pentameter.

IV. RHYME.

13. Metrical language is divided, according to *form*, into **two kinds**:

I. That kind of metrical language in which the concluding syllables of the verses have a similarity of sound—called **Rhyme**.

EXAMPLES.—1. Radiant sister of the **day**,
Awake, arise, and come away!

2. Alas! for the **rarity**
Of Christian **charity**.

In the first example “day” and “way,” and in the second “rarity” and “charity” have a similarity of sound, and are rhymes.

II. That kind of metrical language in which there is no similarity of sound in the concluding syllables of the verses—called **Blank Verse**.

EXAMPLE.—Take the wings
Of morning, traverse Barca's desert sands,
Or lose thyself in the continuous woods
Where rolls the Oregon and hears no sound
Save his own dashings,—yet the dead are there.

These lines, having no similarity of sound in the concluding syllables, are blank verse.

14. According to the various degrees of similarity in the sound of the rhyming syllables, rhymes are divided into three classes: I. PERFECT RHYMES; II. ADMISSIBLE RHYMES; III. INADMISSIBLE RHYMES.

I. A **perfect Rhyme** is one in which there is an identity of vowel sounds, a dissimilarity of preceding, and an identity of succeeding, consonant sounds.

EXAMPLES.—1. I thought that mist of dawning **gray**
Would never dapple into **day**.

2. Up rose the sun, the mists were *curled*
Back from the solitary **world**

In “gray” and “day” there is an identity of vowel sounds. The *gr* and the *d*—preceding consonant sounds—are dissimilar; succeeding consonants, none: the rhyme is *perfect*. In “curled” and “world” there is an identity of vowel sounds. The *c* and the *w*—preceding consonant sounds—are dissimilar; succeeding consonant sounds are identical: the rhyme is *perfect*.

II. An **admissible Rhyme** is one in which there is *an analogy* of vowel sounds, the consonants obeying the same law as in perfect rhyme.

EXAMPLES.—1. The soul, uneasy and confined from **home**,
Rests and expatiates in a life to **come**.

2. Who lists may in their mumming **see**
Traces of ancient mystery.

In these rhymes the vowel sounds are analogous—not identical: such rhymes are *admissible*.

III. An **inadmissible Rhyme** is one in which, though there is a similarity of sound in the rhyming syllables, there is some departure from the principles of perfect or admissible rhyme.

EXAMPLES.—1. Across the deep we take our **way**,
From shore and hill we steer **away**.

2. Yet he was kind, or if severe in *aught*,
The love he bore to learning was in *fault*. — *Goldsmith*.

In “way” and “away” the consonants preceding the vowel sounds are identical instead of similar; no syllable must rhyme *with itself*. In “aught” and “fault” the vowel sounds are identical, according to the rules for perfect rhyme; but the succeeding consonant sounds are dissimilar, contrary to the rule. Both rhymes are *inadmissible*.

Remark 1.—Rhyme appeals to the *ear*, not to the *eye*. *Weigh* and *say* constitute a perfect rhyme, though the orthography does not indicate it. So also *dumb* and *come*, and *beau* and *show*. But *cough* and *through*, though orthographically analogous, do not rhyme at all.

Remark 2.—In trochaic verse *the last two syllables* should rhyme.

EXAMPLE.—From the plain and from the *valley*
All the sons of freedom *rally*.

Here we have a perfect trochaic rhyme. The two syllables, *ley* and *ly*, are identical in sound; and the accented syllables, *val* and *ral*, obey the general laws for perfect rhyme. (See I., under 14, page 315.)

Remark 3.—In dactylic verse the last three syllables should rhyme.

EXAMPLE.—Mad from life's *history*,
Glad to death's *mystery*.

Here the last two syllables in the rhyming words are identical in sound; and the accented syllables obey the general laws of rhyme.

EXERCISES.

Select a poem and point out the rhymes as Perfect, Admissible, or Inadmissible.

V. THE CÆSURA.

15. Every verse of more than three feet contains a rhythmic pause, called the **Cæsure**.

EXAMPLE—Thrice happy man,|| enabled to pursue
What all so wish|| but want the power to do!

16. In the use of the cæsure three rules should be observed:

1. The pause should stand near *the middle* of the verse.
(See the above example.)

2. The pause must not divide a word.

EXAMPLE.—{ And Belgium's capital|| had gathered then.
 Correct.
 And Belgium's cap-|| ital had gathered then.
 Incorrect.

3. The pause must not separate an adjective from the noun which it modifies, or an adverb from its verb, when the one immediately follows the other.

Remark.—In addition to the primary pause, pentameter, hexameter, and heptameter verses have certain secondary pauses dividing the parts on each side of the principal cæsure.

EXAMPLE.—Oh! how our hearts | were beating || when | at
 the dawn of day,
We saw the army | of the League || drawn out |
 in long array.

Here the places of the secondary pauses are marked by the single vertical bars.

EXERCISES.

Select a poem, and point out the Cæsuras in the verses.

VI. STANZAS.

16. Two or more verses, combined together according to a system, constitute a **Stanza**.

17. The number of verses in English stanzas varies from *two* to *nine*.

1. The shortest and simplest English stanza is a **two-line rhyming couplet**.

Ex.—Up rose old Barbara Frietchie then,
Bowed with her four-score years and ten.

2. A **three-line rhyming stanza** is occasionally employed in English poetry.

Ex.—Then to the still, small voice I said:
“Let me not cast in endless shade
What is so wonderfully made.”—*Tennyson*.

3. The **four-line rhyming stanza** is the commonest of all the forms employed in English poetry.

Ex.—The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour;
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.—*Gray*.

Remark 1.—Of the four-line stanzas there are many varieties—trimeter, tetrameter, pentameter, hexameter; iambic, trochaic, anapestic, etc. When the stanza consists of alternate iambic tetrameters and iambic trimeters, rhyming either consecutively or alternately, it constitutes the familiar hymn-measure, called **Common Meter**.

Ex.—Happy the heart where graces reign,
Where love inspires the breast;
Love is the brightest of the train,
And strengthens all the rest.—*Watts*.

Remark 2.—If the first verse of a common meter stanza be shortened to a trimeter, the stanza becomes **Short Meter**.

Ex.—Oh, where shall rest be found,—
 Rest for the weary soul?
 'Twere vain the ocean's depths to sound,
 Or pierce to either pole.—*Montgomery*.

Remark 3.—If the second and fourth verses of a common meter stanza be lengthened into tetrameters, the stanza becomes **Long Meter**.

Ex.—The billows swell, the winds are high,
 Clouds overcast my wintry sky;
 Out of the depths to Thee I call;
 My fears are great, my strength is small.—*Cowper*.

Remark 4.—Besides common, short, and long meter, many hymn-stanzas are written in what are called **Particular Meters**.

4. The five-line stanza is a rarely used, but elegant, combination of verses.

Ex.—The face which, duly as the sun,
 Rose up for me with life begun,
 To mark all bright hours of the day
 With hourly love, is dimmed away,—
 And yet my days go on, go on.—*Browning*.

5. The six-line stanza has several forms, and is much used in English poetry.

Ex.—A king sat on the rocky brow
 Which looks o'er sea-born Salamis;
 And ships by thousands lay below,
 And men in nations,—all were his!
 He counted them at break of day,
 But when the sun set, where were they?—*Byron*.

6. The seven-line stanza is but little used, and is known as **Rhyme Royal**.

Ex.—For, lo! the sea that fleets about the land,
And like a girdle clasps her solid waist,
Music and measure both doth understand;
For his great crystal eye is always cast
Up to the moon, and on her fixeth fast;
And as she in her pallid sphere,
So danceth he about the center here.—*Davis.*

7. The eight-line stanza most in use is called **Ottava Rima**.

Ex.—At first a universal shriek then rushed
Louder than the loud ocean, like a crash
Of echoing thunder; and then all was hushed,
Save the wild wind and the remorseless dash
Of billows; but at intervals there gushed,
Accompanied with a convulsive splash
A solitary shriek—the bubbling cry
Of some strong swimmer in his agony.—*Byron.*

8. The nine-line combination forms the **Spenserian Stanza**.

Ex.—Ah! then and there was hurrying to and fro,
And gathering tears, and tremblings of distress,
And cheeks all pale, which but an hour ago
Blushed at the praise of their own loveliness;
And there were sudden partings, such as press
The life from out young hearts, and choking sighs
Which ne'er might be repeated; who could guess
If ever more should meet those mutual eyes,
Since upon night so sweet such awful morn could
rise?—*Byron.*

Remark.—The **Sonnet**, consisting of fourteen verses variously arranged, is considerably used in English poetry.

EXERCISES.

Select poems illustrating the various kinds of Stanzas.

VI. SCANSION.

17. The process of giving in proper order the feet, meter, and other characteristics of verse, is called **Scansion**.

ORDER OF SCANNING VERSE.

18. The order of scanning verse is:

1. Rhyme or Blank Verse, and why; *and, if Rhyme,*
2. In Stanzas or Continuous; *and, if Stanzas,*
3. The kind of Stanza, and why;
4. The kind of Foot, and why;
5. The kind of Meter, and why;
6. Pure or Mixed, and why;
7. Acatalectic, Catalectic, or Hypercatalectic, and why;
8. Scan.

MODEL FOR SCANNING.

All day long through Frederick street
Sounded the tread of marching feet. — *Whittier*.

All day long, etc., is verse in rhyme; the extract is a stanza; a two-line stanza rhyming consecutively; trochaic verse, being composed in trochees; tetrameter, having four feet in each verse; mixed verse, having the third foot of the first verse, and the first foot of the second verse, dactyls; catalectic, each verse lacking one unaccented syllable of being complete.

All day | long through | Fred-er-ick | street []
Sound-ed the | tread of | march-ing | feet [].

With this model, and such variations and modifications thereof as are readily suggested, all varieties of English verse may be scanned.

EXERCISES.

According to the Model scan the following verses:

1. There is a roaring in the bleak-grown pines
When Winter lifts his voice. — *Keats*.
2. The Peri yet may be forgiven
Who brings to this eternal gate
The gift that is most dear to heaven. — *Moore*.
3. But little he'll reck if they let him sleep on
In a grave where a Briton has laid him. — *Wolfe*.
4. Our misty day-dreams blend in sweet confusion
The wintry landscape and the summer skies. — *Holmes*.
5. From the stars of heaven and flowers of earth,
From the pageant of power and the voice of mirth,
From the mist of morn on the mountain's brow,
From childhood's song and affection's vow,
There breathes but one record. — *Jewsbury*.
6. The isle is now all desolate and bare,
Its dwellings down, its tenants passed away;
None but her own and father's grave is there,
And nothing outward tells of human clay;
Ye could not know where lies a thing so fair,
No stone is there to show, no tongue to say,
What was; no dirge, except the hollow sea's,
Mourns o'er the Beauty of the Cyclades. — *Byron*.
7. So live that when thy summons comes to join
The innumerable caravan that moves
To the pale realms of shade, where each shall take
His chamber in the silent halls of death,
Thou go not, like the quarry slave at night,
Scourged to his dungeon, but sustained and soothed
By an unfaltering trust, approach thy grave
Like one who wraps the drapery of his couch
About him, and lies down to pleasant dreams. — *Bryant*.

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